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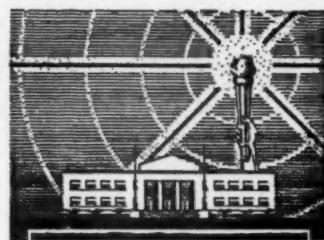
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Continuing *The Historical Outlook*

FEBRUARY, 1952

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As the Editor Sees It

In a talk to a group of high school principals some time ago, Dean Melby of New York University's School of Education commented that education "doesn't ring any bells with the American people." In other words, education lacks glamor, the kind of glamor that makes people interested in such professions as the theatre, journalism, advertising, or railroad ing. The very words "education," "school," and "teacher" seem to carry dull and stodgy connotations. Has any educator ever been asked his occupation by a new acquaintance and, on giving the information, seen his questioner's eyes light up with interest as though he had replied "movie director," "novelist," "surgeon" or "radio announcer"? Surely not, unless possibly the interlocutor was also an educator eager to talk shop. The teacher is accustomed to being condescended to in most mixed groups; rarely does a non-teacher sincerely invite her to talk about her work. She is more likely to be told what is wrong with modern schools and then the conversation is shifted to some more interesting topic, such as bridge, the traffic problem, or the cost of living.

Public education, despite its obvious importance to the whole population, has never succeeded in challenging public imagination, except in its eccentric or entertainment phases. Those teachers with comic overtones, like Ichabod Crane, or dramatic ability, like William Lyon Phelps, become classic types; while everyone remembers most clearly that one teacher of his own whose peculiarities were most striking. The school's athletic program, or parts of it, arouses a great deal of popular interest, but the PTA meetings, the public forums and the school elections attract few people unless a local fight is involved. There are no dramatic values in a well-taught lesson, a well-planned curriculum or a smoothly-operating school plant. These things are neither exciting or mysterious to the average citizen. Perhaps one reason is because

at heart every layman feels that he knows all about the business of education, being one of its products himself. Where his interest, respect and even awe may be stimulated by a complex industrial process or a skillful surgical operation, he has no such attitude toward the educational process; he is too accustomed to it to be intrigued by it. Frankly, it bores him.

There are probably many reasons for the drabness of education. One of them is certainly the fact that the general public connects it with childhood and so it, and its practitioners, lie outside the every-day world of grown-ups. No matter how large our buildings and how enormous our expenditures of money, we are still in a juvenile world that our public has outgrown. Perhaps another reason for education's lack of glamor lies in its inability to show measurable and tangible results for its work, such as a bridge built, a newspaper printed, a motion picture film produced, or a favorable balance sheet on the firm's books. Unfortunately our product is not only largely unassayable, but we share responsibility for the end result with so many other factors (home conditions, native ability, social pressures) that we are all too often denied the credit for that which we do produce. It is only natural that if Johnny grows up to become a successful and well-adjusted citizen, his parents will take unto themselves the major portion of the honors for it.

Perhaps education must inevitably be unglamorous,—the angular, well-meaning but unattractive spinster among society's chief enterprises. But as with plain Aunt Jane, who baby-sits with the youngsters while Mother and Dad go to a night club, a little make-up, a new permanent and a more attractive gown might work wonders. The schools are doing an important and a man-size job, but they have much to learn about their public appearance. Virtue and respectability are highly desirable attributes, but a little glamor never hurt anyone.

The Social Studies

VOLUME XLIII, NUMBER 2

FEBRUARY, 1952

The Source Method in Nebraska, 1891-1900

An Early Experiment in the In-Service Education of Teachers¹

ROBERT E. KEOHANE

The University of Chicago and Shimer College, Chicago, Illinois

The 1890's were a period in American secondary education which combined considerable fertility in educational ideas with a tremendous drive toward the crystallization of such principles and practices into a relatively uniform high-school curriculum. As President Eliot of Harvard expressed it in 1892:²

Uniformity in schools . . . is desirable so far as it means selection of all the subjects which may wisely be included in the successive grades, either for all pupils or for some pupils, definition of those subjects, determination of the average or ordinary time to be devoted to each subject, and prescription of the methods appropriate to each.

Although the specific prescriptions of President Eliot's Committee of Ten did not bring about the uniformity which the Committee desired, its *Report* accelerated the process which was to fix the curricular pattern—or model the educational "strait-jacket," as some would express it—of American high schools for most of the first two or three decades of this century. The process was carried forward more successfully by the later Committee on College-Entrance Requirements which reported in 1899, and by its subject-matter sub-committees, of which the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association was perhaps the most notably successful. During the past two or three decades this synthesis has been rather generally broken

down under the impact of new conceptions stemming from educational psychology, from the requirements of a secondary education adapted to the needs and wants of the children of all of the people, and from new ways of looking at history and the social sciences and their values for general education.³

But this crystallization of secondary-school patterns came only after a period of controversy over aims, curricular content, materials, and methodology which got down to basic issues in a way which had never before been debated in America, and were not again to be argued generally until the 1930's. During this interval educational historians judged severely the ideas and practices which had lost out in that debate, chiefly because they were out of harmony with the prevailing psychological and educational theories of that time and with the educational decisions in which the earlier era of controversy had ended. More recently some Progressive educators have made excursions into our educational history and have recoiled in horror from the "dark ages" which they discovered antedated our obviously more enlightened era.⁴ So the tables have been turned, and what was once orthodoxy has become heresy. (Historians will not miss the obvious parallel with the practices of members of the craft during the Renaissance!) Neither school of interpretation has done adequate justice to the sweep of educational thought nor to the complex conditions of American secondary education in the 1890's. Nor will

Editor's Note: This is the first part of a two part article. The second part will appear in March.

this period in our educational history be properly appreciated and evaluated until more attention than has hitherto been given is devoted, in their own historical context, to the alternative ideas and practices which were rejected by American educational leaders about 1900 and which, in altered forms, are again today being tried out in schools and debated in educational circles.

One educational movement in which this tendency is most clearly evident is that which has often been misnamed the "source method" of teaching history. In its best-known form this "method" was an attempt to base much of secondary-school and college history teaching chiefly upon the use of well-selected and well-edited collections of primary sources, leaving most of their interpretation to students and teachers. Between 1885 and 1900 this movement represented a significant reaction against the almost incredibly poor textbooks then in general use, and an effort, through the provision of better learning materials, to improve the quality of the teaching of history.⁵ An important chapter in this story was the attempt of Professor Fred Morrow Fling and his co-workers in Nebraska to develop his version of the "source method" in the high schools of that state between 1896 and 1900. The effort failed, but in its failure it constituted, in my opinion, a most instructive educational experiment which those of us today who are interested in the place of history in general education cannot afford to ignore.

To understand why this educational "experiment" was undertaken when and where it was, and why it failed, it is necessary briefly to review some of the major factors conditioning the secondary-school teaching of history in the United States during the last quarter of the nineteenth century. First, and probably most important, was the creation of a historical profession in this country.⁶ By the 1890's most of the leaders of that profession were teaching history, or history and related subjects, in leading American colleges and universities. They had been trained in European, chiefly German, universities, or were the students of men so trained. Addicted to "scientific" history, they had, quite understandably, little patience with most of the American historians who had

preceded them, and with the historical offerings in American schools and colleges before the advent of the "new learning." It was their job, among other things, to renovate and to reorganize the teaching of history, and of Clio's "poor relations," first in American universities and colleges, later in the "lower" schools as well. In their dealings with those schools many of them tended to rely upon what they knew of the content and methods prevalent in European schools, especially in the secondary schools of Germany and France, though they usually recognized, at least formally, that numerous changes were necessary to adapt these foreign patterns to the quite different social and educational situations on this side of the Atlantic.⁷

Nevertheless, the prestige of the "new learning," and of its practitioners was so great that their recommendations were often followed, sometimes quite slavishly, by high-schools.⁸ Their approach synchronized well with the demand of leaders in both higher and secondary education that the articulation between high school and college be improved. To do this, under the prevailing educational doctrines of the time, it seemed necessary to establish a relatively uniform pattern of high-school courses which the colleges would accept as the basis for admission, whether by examination or by certification, according to the policy of the higher institution concerned. After 1900 the pattern of the Committee of Seven was shaped by textbooks into a Procrustean bed to which most high-school history courses were fitted for the next twenty years.⁹

But in the 1880's and 1890's the situation was more fluid than it later became; in those decades the great transformation of high-school history took place. In 1883 the first American "special methods" book for history appeared, and, the same year, the *Old South Leaflets* began to make easily available to young people some of the sources of our history. In 1884 the American Historical Association was founded, in 1885 Mary Sheldon Barnes brought out her first "source-textbook," *Studies in General History*, which was followed in 1886 by her teacher's manual which showed teachers how to use the new "seminary method," as she preferred to designate it. In

1891-92 she and her husband Earl Barnes applied the same method to United States history and in 1893 the Madison Conference made the first attempt by a national committee to bring about some degree of uniformity in the high-school history curriculum. Although the Madison Conference refused to recommend the "seminary method," they did urge the liberal use of primary sources, and simultaneous utilization of several textbooks. Furthermore they tried to stimulate the critical study of history in the last high-school year by proposing that part of that year be devoted to the intensive study, through both primary and secondary sources, of a short period or a limited topic of history.¹⁰ Of course there were critics of these innovations who thought that what pupils needed was "to learn [i.e., memorize] what is in the book and to gain from it a keen desire to learn more."¹¹ Such critics seemed quite oblivious to the possibility that the two objectives might be somewhat contradictory!

Such was the educational setting in which the so-called "source method" received its most ambitious tryout in the American high school. Fred Morrow Fling of the University of Nebraska was the leading pioneer in this effort. A native of Portland, Maine, Fling had worked his way through Bowdoin College, and then had taught for five years in the Biddeford High School where he used Mary Sheldon Barnes's first source-textbook in his classes. After taking his Ph.D. at Leipzig in 1890, and working on his study of Mirabeau at Cornell for another year, he came to Nebraska in 1891 to head the work in European history.¹² In American history his chief colleague was Howard W. Caldwell, who had studied at Nebraska under George E. Howard and at the Johns Hopkins University under Herbert Baxter Adams. Caldwell had had teaching and administrative experience in Nebraska high schools, and had taught for several years at the state university when Fling appeared on the scene.¹³

It was a most fortunate time for pioneering work. In the same academic year James Hulme Canfield began his four-year tenure of the Chancellorship during which the "Lincoln High School," as the University had been

derisively called during the 1880's, began to be transformed into a university. In those four years the Faculty and the student-body each tripled, despite the years of bitter depression. In the same period the Nebraska academies and high schools whose graduates were admitted without examination to the University increased from 22 to 72. Chancellor Canfield's stress upon the place of the University as essentially Grades 13-16 of the public school system and his liberalizing policy of accreditation helped to bind the high schools of the state to the University in ties of amity, mutual interest, and habitual intercourse.¹⁴

The first statewide trial of the "source-textbook" approach to the study of history in Nebraska with which Fling was associated occurred during 1891-1892, when a "reading circle" of teachers read and discussed, "for general culture," Mary Sheldon Barnes's *Studies in General History*. Fling had had nothing to do with the initiation of this program, nor with the choice of Mrs. Barnes's book; in all probability this selection was the work of his predecessor George E. Howard, who had gone recently to the faculty of the newly-founded Stanford University.¹⁵ And it must be emphasized that this program was for teachers of all fields, and not an attempt to introduce the "seminary" method into the high-school history curriculum. But, as experts in the field of history, both Caldwell and Fling contributed articles to J. H. Miller's *Northwestern Journal of Education* which sponsored the reading circles. In his first article Caldwell reveals a rather adversely critical view of the approach, while Fling ignored it and simply summarized historical movements relevant to the parts of the work next to be read.¹⁶ But in his second article Fling defended the approach, and gave his readers several excellent suggestions for getting the most out of their study of the book.¹⁷ Apparently this use of Mrs. Barnes's *Studies* was not especially successful, for, as Fling later pointed out, "the attempt was made to *read* it like an ordinary narrative and not to *study* it as a collection of historical sources."¹⁸

The experience with the reading circle underlined an important condition for the successful use of such materials. Clearly one

crucial point on which the success of the whole venture turned was the interest and ability of the teachers to understand how best to use such materials, and to want to do so. To secure interested and able teachers for the larger venture of the future, an adequate incentive, able leadership, organization, and a ready means of communication between leaders and led—in both directions—was essential. When these conditions seemed present in 1896, Fling was ready to inaugurate his notable educational crusade.

But before the larger field could be properly cultivated, it was desirable, perhaps necessary, that Fling and Caldwell should work out their methods of teaching college undergraduates how to study history from selected primary sources. They did not abandon the usual lectures and study of authorities, but they supplemented these conventional practices from the beginning of the first-year course with basic readings assigned from primary sources. By 1895 Caldwell used primary sources as the basis for "one or two special papers" each semester; Fling specified "weekly studies upon extracts from the sources and careful training in the preparation of historical papers."¹⁹ Perhaps the best description of Fling's teaching at that time is found in Willa Cather's thinly-disguised "Professor of European History" in her novel, *One of Ours*:²⁰

The course Claude [the hero of the book] selected was one upon which a student could put as much time as he chose. It was based upon the reading of historical sources, and the Professor was notoriously greedy for full notebooks. Claude's were of the fullest. He worked early and late at the University Library.... For the first time he was studying a subject which seemed to him vital, which had to do with events and ideas, instead of with lexicons and grammars.... The class was very, very large, and the Professor spoke without notes—he talked rapidly, as if he were addressing his equals, with none of the coaxing persuasiveness to which Temple students were accustomed. His lectures were condensed like a legal brief, but when he occasionally interrupted his exposition with purely personal comments, it seemed valuable and important.

More immediately related to the later high-school experiment was the summer-school and extension work which Fling and Caldwell carried on among Nebraska history teachers.²¹ In the summer school of 1896 Fling offered a course in Greek history which he urged teachers of United States history (among others) to take on the ground that the "method is common to all good history." The catalog warned that "the teachers will need to give at least seven hours a day to preparation. Reading in the sources of Greek history and in the modern writers will be assigned. Short papers based upon the sources will be prepared under the direction of the instructor to make the teacher acquainted with the nature of historical research, and to make clear the differences between sources and modern writers or commentators on the sources." Teachers were also encouraged to work for University course credit through extension classes during the school year.²²

By the spring of 1896 conditions seemed to Fling and Caldwell to be suitable for the initiation of their educational crusade for the wider use of the "source method." The high schools of Nebraska were stronger than ever before; Fling and Caldwell had tried out their method with college freshmen and sophomores, and knew that it worked there; and usable, if not fully satisfactory, collections of primary sources were available.²³ Two additional elements which seemed essential were also at hand by the summer of 1896, namely: 1) an organized body of teachers and school administrators who were willing to give the new method a fair tryout, and 2) an adequate means of regular communication between the leaders in Lincoln and the teachers in high schools all over the state.

In May, 1896, the "Association of Nebraska Teachers of History" was organized with Fling and Caldwell as its formal "Advisory Board," with a General Secretary (J. W. Crabtree, years later the Executive Secretary of the N.E.A., 1918-1934), and an Executive Council of six.²⁴ Excellent tactics were employed to enlist the interest and cooperation of many classroom teachers through the "institutes" which county superintendents held shortly before the beginning of school in the fall. In

October, however, those teachers who had not attended an institute were assured that they, too, could use the new method if only they would read the articles on it in the *North-Western Journal of Education*, and study carefully the plan of the textbook. It was suggested that parents would approve of the reform, as "parents as a rule feel that there is not enough history in the school and that it is poorly taught."²⁵ At the same time the Reading Circle was used to re-enforce the new agencies by having the Nebraska Reading Circle Board choose Sheldon's *Studies in American History* for its members' reading. In December the General Secretary reported that the source-study method had a "good working nucleus in nearly every county" of Nebraska.²⁶

The other absolute essential—the means of communication between leaders and led—was provided by Miller's *North-Western Journal of Education*.²⁷ From June, 1896, through its last number in December, 1899, the *Journal* gave Fling and Caldwell invaluable help in showing Nebraska teachers how to use primary sources in teaching high-school history. During the first year (1896-1897) Fling and Caldwell stressed ways of using (and ways of *not* using) Mary Sheldon Barnes's books, answered questions from teachers using the method, and countered the attacks of unfriendly critics.²⁸ During the next two and a half years Fling, Caldwell, and some of their associates at Lincoln concentrated upon the writing and publishing of better classroom materials and materials for teachers of history. Miller's magazine published these materials, and, in addition, issued translations of articles on the teaching of history, and the writings which later became Fling's *Outlines of Historical Method*. The classroom readings were also published as pamphlets from September through June, and later appeared in book form.²⁹

Fling and Caldwell did their basic work of teacher-education during the first year (1896-1897) of their "crusade." Their monthly articles were published later, with little change, as *Studies in European and American History*: following an obvious division of labor, Fling did the "General" of European history articles, and Caldwell the American.³⁰ Caldwell's

column also carried "testimonials" from teachers and administrators who liked the method, and answers to communications from worried teachers. Fling's articles followed a well-thought-out plan which enabled him to "cover" the field of General history, with a fairly conventional distribution of time, in the ten issues from September, 1896, through June, 1897.³¹ Caldwell's column could not, on the other hand, have been very helpful to teachers of United States history during the first school year, for he spent his first three numbers on generalities of methodology and on broad aspects of American history. In December he began his treatment of the colonial period which continued through March. Only the last three issues remained for the period after 1763!³²

To understand the "source method" which Fling and Caldwell worked out in this educational experiment it is necessary to understand quite clearly what it took from the "seminary method" of Mary Sheldon Barnes, what of that method the Nebraska form of the "source method" discarded, and what Fling and Caldwell added of their own. As we have seen, in the first year the teachers and pupils used both of Mary Sheldon Barnes's textbooks, and probably some of them had her teachers' manuals available.³³ In those manuals Mrs. Barnes gave numerous clear and specific suggestions for the proper classroom use of her books, and of supplementary materials. They may be summed up under the following six points. First, secondary and primary sources were combined in one volume in almost equal parts.³⁴ Second, for basic homework, the pupil was required to study his "source-textbook" in order to find answers to the study questions. Third, the "recitation" consisted ideally of a critical discussion of the pupils' answers to the study questions and of an evaluation of the pupils' reasons for their answers. In this phase of the work the pupils were to be "as free and talkative" as possible. Fourth, during the discussion the conclusions were to be summarized by both the teacher and the pupils, and the summaries were to be entered in the pupils' notebooks. Fifth, additional reading in secondary works was to follow the reading of primary sources and the classroom discussion of a topic. Finally, the major aim of such study was to

stimulate the pupil to study, think about, and discuss historical questions critically in order to develop his abilities of observation, generalization, and judgment, and to develop his powers of historical imagination.

Since Fling and Caldwell had set out to achieve substantially the same educational ends which had inspired Mary Sheldon Barnes, and since they used her books as basic reading matter, it is not surprising that they adopted all but one of the characteristics of her "seminary method." But in their suggestions to teachers they put no stress on teacher-pupil *oral* summarization of conclusions, and they insisted strongly that the pupil was obligated to "take down in his notebook every bit of evidence that he had overlooked and every interpretation or combination that he had not noticed in writing out his answers." And this last point refers to one of two requirements which Fling and Caldwell added, namely: 1) the construction by the pupil of an outline, after the study and discussion of a topic had been completed, and then 2) the writing of a narrative based upon the outline. "If they do not know how to make an outline," Fling wrote characteristically, "time should be taken to teach them." After the narrative had been written, portions were to be "read and criticized, and some especially good narrative read in its entirety in the class." Teachers who are familiar with the five-step plan of the late Professor H. C. Morrison of the University of Chicago will recognize the similarity of Fling's outline to Morrison's organization paper, and of Fling's narrative to Morrison's written recitation.⁸⁵

Thus the major difference between the Sheldon-Barnes and the Fling-Caldwell versions of the "source method" was in the character and amount of the assigned written work, and in the inevitable effects of these differences upon other phases of the work. In the Fling-Caldwell form the pupil was supposed to write his answer to each of six or seven questions a day outside of class hours. That pupils would not always prepare their lessons so diligently will be apparent to anyone who has ever taught American adolescents; Fling himself later declared that the failure to require such preparation had been "the rock upon which a large

majority of the teachers have been wrecked. . . . Each question must be answered fully, the answer written neatly in a notebook and brought into the class in that form." When the class met, each pupil was to have his notebook with his answers and his source book "*open on his desk.*"⁸⁶ When called upon, the pupil was to read his answer; if it were inadequate or inaccurate, discussion followed. Under this system, whatever its advantages to some pupils, it is quite easy to see what often happened to the "free and talkative" recitations which Mary Sheldon Barnes had advocated. However, it was probably the rewriting in outline and narrative form, of the world's history in one year, and of the history of the United States in another, which alienated both pupils and teachers. It is not to be wondered that the Nebraska form of the "source method" encountered some obstacles.⁸⁷

(To be continued)

¹ Read, in slightly altered form, at the meeting of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association in Cincinnati, April 21, 1951.

² For the full text of this important speech, see *Proceedings and Addresses . . . N.E.A., 1892* (New York, 1893), pp. 89-95; reprinted in Charles W. Eliot, *Educational Reform* (New York: Century, 1898), pp. 273-300.

³ The work of the great educational committees of the 1890's with special reference to the history curriculum, was discussed in my article, "The Madison Conference and the Committee of Seven: A Reconsideration," *Social Studies*, XL (March, 1949), 103-12.

⁴ See especially pp. 30-32 of J. Paul Leonard, *Developing the Secondary-School Curriculum* (New York: Rinehart, 1946).

⁵ See my article, "Mary Sheldon Barnes and the Origin of the Source Method of Teaching History in the American Secondary School, 1885-1896," *American Heritage* (first series), II (October and December, 1948), 68-72, 109-12.

⁶ See especially *Historical Scholarship in the United States, 1876-1900: As Recorded in the Correspondence of Herbert B. Adams* (ed. by W. Stull Holt), in the *Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science*, Series LVI, No. 4 (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1938).

⁷ Good examples of this attitude are to be found in *The Study of History in Schools: Report to the American Historical Association by the Committee of Seven* (N.Y.: Macmillan, 1899). Recently some American educators have done something to repay this debt to Germany, and have received about the same measure of thanks from the recipients of their bounty as was meted out here to the "Germanizing" American educational pioneers of the 1890's.

⁸ Charles H. Haskins in *Minutes: Second Annual Convention of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland . . . 1904* (N. Y., n.d.), p. 50; Rolla M. Tryon, *The Social Sciences as School Subjects* (N. Y.: Scribners, 1935), p. 27.

⁹ See the references for footnotes 3 and 8.

¹⁰ See the appropriate references given in the article cited in footnote 3 and in my article, "The Great

Debate over the Source Method," *Social Education*, XIII (May, 1949), 212-18.

¹¹ R. H. Dabney, review article in the *Educational Review*, VI (November, 1893), 394-97.

¹² Letter of Sept. 15, 1947 from Mrs. Fred M. Fling to R. E. Keohane.

¹³ See the *Registers and Catalogues* of the University of Nebraska for the relevant years; also the *Alumni Directory: Graduates, 1869-1912*, Bulletin of the University of Nebraska, Series 17, No. 7 (Lincoln: University of Nebraska, 1912). For interesting letters bearing on the appointment at Nebraska of both men, see Holt, *op. cit.*, pp. 66-67 and 163.

¹⁴ *Dictionary of American Biography* (henceforth, *D.A.B.*) (N. Y.: Scribners, 1929-37), III, 472, and H. W. Caldwell, *Education in Nebraska*. U. S. Bureau of Education . . . *Contributions to American Educational History* (ed. by Herbert Baxter Adams), N. 32. (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1902), pp. 33-36. For the figures on numbers of students and faculty members, see the following publications of the University of Nebraska: *Catalogue, 1890-91* (1891), pp. 7-9, 38, 91-92, and *Calendar, 1895-1896* (1895), pp. 6-13, 68, 70. For Canfield's stress upon the position of the University as the culmination of the state's public-school system, see *Six Years Instruction, Tuition Free: Announcements, 1892-1893* (1892), p. 7.

¹⁵ This Reading Circle, a successor to an earlier one, had been formed in 1890, and was being promoted by J. H. Miller's *North-Western Journal of Education* (henceforth, *NWJE*). Each year a pedagogical work, another for "general culture," and the *NWJE* were "required reading" for the members of the Reading Circle [*NWJE*, I (July, 1890), 18-19]. In the spring of 1891, shortly before he left Nebraska for Stanford, Howard had introduced Mrs. Barnes's book to the readers of Miller's Journal in an article entitled, "History in the Reading Circle" [*NWJE*, I, (March, 1891), 204-05]. Howard wrote, "From the beginning to the end of his course the student of history should be led to compare views, to judge statements, to supplement one writer's account with that of another. No subject offers a better opportunity for the cultivation of the judgment and the reasoning faculty. . . . The art of teaching history consists in the ability to convert narrative into problems. . . . The teacher must strive to rise above his textbooks; to rid himself of a superstitious reverence for print." Later in the same article Howard commented, "Candidates for advanced standing in the University often say, 'Oh, I have had United States history,' and a question or two usually develops the fact that United States history, like other ills of tender youth, is looked upon as a thing which must be had once, perchance lightly, but which under normal conditions need not be taken again. This is the effect of dogmatic instruction. . . . I thoroughly mistrust a 'finished' education in any phase of history. . . . I would leave the subject as unfinished as possible."

¹⁶ *NWJE*, II (November, 1891), 111-13; (February, 1892), 196-99.

¹⁷ *NWJE*, II (March, 1892), 230-33.

¹⁸ Fred M. Fling and Howard W. Caldwell, *Studies in European and American History* (Lincoln, Nebr.: J. H. Miller, 1897), p. 24.

¹⁹ University of Nebraska, *Calendar, 1895-1896* (Lincoln, Nebr.: University of Nebraska, June, 1896), pp. 118, 121-22. A comparison of the description of courses in this calendar with the analogous material in the *Catalogue for 1890-1891* (pp. 73-74) will demonstrate how much this emphasis upon primary sources owed to the work of Fling who had succeeded Howard in 1891. In the year before the former's arrival the readings listed for all but the most advanced history courses were secondary authorities, not primary sources. For a good description of Fling's materials and methods in his college courses after his first decade at Nebraska, see the report by Professor Haskins in *Minutes: Second Annual Convention of*

History Teachers of the Middle States. . . , 1904, pp. 19-20.

²⁰ Willa Cather, *One of Ours* (N. Y.: Knopf, 1922), p. 37. For additional evidence on the identification of Fling with "the Professor" see John Andrew Rice, *I Came Out of the Eighteenth Century* (N. Y.: Harper, 1942), p. 284.

²¹ On the summer school work see the University of Nebraska, *The Colleges, Courses of Study, Departments of Instruction, 1892-1893*, 2nd ed. (Lincoln, Neb.: University of Nebraska, 1892), p. 32; also F. B. Murray, *A History of Summer Sessions at the University of Nebraska*. M.A. Thesis (typewritten), (Lincoln, Nebr.; University of Nebraska, 1942), p. 9. ²² *Calendar, 1895-1896*, pp. 227-28, 225.

²³ Chiefly in the Sheldon-Barnes books, though some use was made of the *American History Leaflets*, the *Old South Leaflets* and of one or two similar collections.

²⁴ J. W. Crabtree, "Association of Nebraska Teachers of History," *NWJE*, VII (October, 1896), 94-95. One of the members of the Executive Council was Miss Villa (Seville) B. Shippey of Omaha, who "had studied the method under Mary Sheldon Barnes" and "had followed it in her teaching for many years" [*NWJE*, VII (January, 1897), p. 193]. Miss Shippey was a member of the "advanced class" of July, 1870, of the Oswego State Normal and Training School, and was graduated from the classical course there in July, 1877. A comparison of these dates with those of Mary Sheldon suggests the probability that Miss Shippey knew Mary Sheldon Barnes first as an older fellow-student, and, later, as her teacher when Miss Shippey returned for the classical course. See *Historical Sketches Relating to the First Quarter Century of the State Normal and Training School at Oswego, N. Y.* (Oswego: H. J. Oliphant, 1888), pp. 255, 277. Here is both an interesting example of the Oswego educational influence and of the linkage between Mrs. Barnes's method and the Nebraska form of the "source method."

²⁵ *NWJE*, VII (October, 1896), p. 94. In the summer of 1896, according to the *NWJE*, the "new source-study method" had been a "special feature of their institutes' work," and "30 others gave one session or more to an explanation of the method. Nearly every county superintendent in the state has recommended its adoption."

²⁶ *NWJE*, VI (June, 1896), 308; *op. cit.*, VII (January, 1897), 193.

²⁷ After June, 1897, called the *North-Western Monthly* (henceforth *NWM*).

²⁸ *NWJE*, VII (September, 1896), 55. In that month Fling and Caldwell, with G. W. A. Luckey, Professor of Pedagogy, became associate editors of the *Journal*. Luckey was another link with the Barnes'; he had taken his A.B. at Stanford in 1894; and his courses at Nebraska reflect exactly Earl Barnes's twin interests in child study and in the presentation of educational theories from the original sources in their appropriate historical contexts. [University of Nebraska, *Calendar, 1895-1896*, pp. 59, 129-30, and Earl Barnes, *Studies in Education* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University, 1896-1897) I, 394-95]. In the June, 1896, number of the *NWJE*, its editor, Luckey ran Barnes's photograph, along with pictures of Frobel, G. Stanley Hall, and Frederic Tracy, under the heading, "Eminent Advocates of Child Study."

²⁹ *Infra*, footnotes 45-52.

³⁰ Wherever the material is found in the *Studies*, reference will be made to this work rather than to the *NWJE*, of which the only practically complete file known to me is in the Library of the University of Nebraska. Some information in the *NWJE* articles which is of value for the historian of this educational experiment, however, was not reproduced in the *Studies*.

³¹ *Studies*, pp. 9-195.

³² *Studies*, pp. 199-329, or his columns in the *NWJE*, VII.

³³ Hilleman completely misunderstands the function of the Fling-Caldwell *Studies* and the Sheldon-Barnes books when he says in his chapter on the use of sources that the *Studies* "made frequent reference to the Barnes's text intending that it be used by the pupils as a supplementary book." [See the Fifth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, *The Historical Approach to Methods of Teaching the Social Studies*, (ed. by Edgar B. Wesley), 1935, p. 66]. Both the original articles in the *NWJE* and the *Studies* make it clear that these articles were written for teachers to explain to them in detail how they were to teach general and United States history by the "source method" (*Studies*, pp. 5, 33). It is equally obvious that the basic readings for pupils were to be found in the Sheldon-Barnes books. (*Studies*, pp. 23-24, 44, 211, 219, etc.) If the Sheldon-Barnes book on American history were not available, Caldwell recommended use of the "American History Leaflets, the Old South Leaflets, or other collections of original materials" (*Studies*, pp. 208-09).

³⁴ For a more complete account of the method, see my article on Mary Sheldon Barnes which is cited in footnote 5.

³⁵ *Studies*, pp. 27-28. Although Fling and Caldwell expressed a high regard for Mrs. Barnes's work (*Studies*, p. 309), it is not difficult to see why they ignored her manuals, and wrote their own directions on how Nebraska teachers should use her "source-textbooks." First, they did not always agree with her historical interpretations, nor think her selections of primary sources and comments upon their authors always adequate (*Studies*, pp. 126-27, 164, 183-84,

224-25, 235, 257-74). Second, they thought that teachers needed more guidance than Mrs. Barnes gave them in two respects, viz.: 1) in the broad interpretations of large periods and of great movements, and 2) in the day-to-day lesson-planning. Third, Fling and Caldwell stressed much more heavily the place of outlines and summary-narratives written by the pupils. (Probably this aspect was one of the more vulnerable characteristics of the Nebraska form of the "source method.") Finally, they must have been aware that Nebraska history teachers would be much more likely to read and to follow directions set forth monthly for them by two male professors at their state university than to study two manuals written by a woman who had no local or regional connections.

³⁶ *Studies*, pp. 25-26. Fling italicized this phrase because one Nebraska principal had criticized a teacher severely because she had allowed the books to be open during the recitation. Fling commented, "That man was quite absolutely in the clutches of tradition!" The difficulty of showing teachers who, figuratively speaking, had been "drugged" by years of hearing the textbook actually "recited" how to use primary sources to stimulate the pupils to critical reading and organizing what they had read is illustrated by the following quotation (*Studies*, p. 23): "It [the book of sources] seems to be disconnected," as one puzzled teacher put it. She was right. It is disconnected, and it is the duty of the pupil under the guidance of the teacher to connect it."

³⁷ As a concession to human weakness and to the force of circumstances, Caldwell granted that "the writing of the narrative may be omitted part of the time, if necessary, and the children be practiced in connected thinking by having them recite orally from the outline which has been prepared" (*ibid.*, p. 240).

The Moravian Brethren in America

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The American Czechoslovaks are considered "new" immigrants—although it is definitely established that they have been coming to this country since the 17th century. This common misconception is due to the fact that the "Reports of the Immigration Commission" (appointed under the Congressional Act of February 20, 1907) emphasized that, beginning with the 1880's, the chief sources of America's immigration shifted from northern and western to southern and eastern Europe. As a result, the uncertainty as to what is a "new" and what an "old" immigrant has created confusion in the popular mind; it appears that, since the so-called "new" immigrants started arriving here after 1880, their predecessors need not be considered at all.¹ Yet the historical evidence shows that immigrants continue to

arrive from the countries included under "old" immigration and that most of the so-called "new" immigrant groups date their first arrival from the time of the Revolution. Consequently, it is seldom known that America's culture and particularly its religious development have been influenced to a remarkable degree by the "Moravian Brethren," who are usually considered by the non-specialists as Germans.

THE HOME OF THE MORAVIAN BRETHREN

John Hus, the great Czech national hero, a Protestant leader who preceded Luther by one century, was silenced on July 6, 1415. But his message drew together a small body of earnest men who agreed to accept the Bible as their only standard of faith and practice, and who established a strict discipline which should keep their lives in the simplicity, purity, and

brotherly love of the early Apostolic Church. This occurred in 1457. The formal organization of the "Unitas Fratrum" (The Unity of Brethren) exerted a great influence in Bohemia, Moravia, and Poland, with its preaching, theological publications, and educational work.²

Instead of dealing with the turbulent religious history of Bohemia up to 1620, I wish simply to state that the Habsburgs, who in 1526 came to occupy the Bohemian throne, feared, as Catholics, the Brotherhood, although it was a community of moderates who united for "leading, through the spirit of love, a virtuous life, peaceful, quiet, abstemious, patient, pure..." The differences between the Habsburgs and the Czech people were eventually adjusted in the deposition of Ferdinand and the election in August 1619, of Frederick, the Elector Palatine of the Rhine, as the Bohemian King, who was chosen as a leading Protestant and as the son-in-law of James I of England, from whom help was anticipated.

MORAVIAN BRETHREN IN AMERICA

On November 8, 1620, the Battle of the White Mountain (which took place only two months after the "Pilgrim Fathers" set sail for America in the Mayflower) sealed the fate of Bohemia's independence. This opening phase of the terrible Thirty Years' War had tragic results for the Czech people. The population of Bohemia was soon clawed to death. Towns and villages by the hundreds were wiped out of existence by the plundering armies. Some records of the misery and horror of the times even mention the practice of cannibalism.

After the Battle of the White Mountain it was only in exile that the Czech nation existed. The Habsburgs particularly persecuted the Protestants. The Bohemian or Moravian Brethren—named after a province of the Kingdom of Bohemia, known as Moravia—lived in distress in all Germany, taught in Poland, and sought refuge in Holland. They also found their way to America. The preacher, Telcik, sojourned in North America only temporarily. More permanent was the residence here of the former citizens of Prague, Augustin Herrman, who came to New York in 1633, and Frederick Filip. Both came from Holland and became well-known figures in America's colonial history. A great-grandson of Herrman,

who in time owned the Bohemia Manor in Maryland, was Richard Bassett (1745-1815); he was a Delaware signer of the Constitution and was subsequently Governor of Delaware. Philip (his name is spelled differently) was First Lord and Founder of Philipse Manor, Yonkers, New York.

Unfortunately, the most distinguished member of the Brotherhood, that "Incomparable Moravian," John Amos Komensky (Comenius), did not come to America, although it is believed that he was invited to become President of Harvard University. But he influenced America indirectly not only through his educational ideas, but also as "The Spiritual Founder of Modern Masonry."³

But there were others. The records of the Reformed Dutch Church and various other contemporary sources contain unmistakable Czech names—Marshalek (Marshalik, Mar schlak), Hallek (Hollock, Hollik, Hollek), Anna Popelar, John Lundra, Thomas Schadek, Matthew Cuta, Maria Holaar, Thomas Hach, and Albert Zaborwskij. But it is difficult to identify many of the Bohemian Brethren as true Czechs for the following historical reasons.

MORAVIAN BRETHREN AS HERRNHUTERS

Many Bohemian and Moravian Brethren held secretly, tenaciously, desperately to the hope that the great Habsburg oppression would be lifted in their beloved homeland. But the passing of a hundred years brought no relief. Therefore, in 1722, a small company of the descendants of the ancient and secret Unitas Fratrum slipped over the borders of Moravia and journeyed to Saxony, to Count Zinzendorf's estates; he had given them permission to sojourn on his property until they could find suitable refuge elsewhere. Thus, the village of Herrnhut (Ochránov) arose, attracting additional colonists from Germany. As a result, an association was formed in which the religious plans of Zinzendorf and those of the Moravians were combined, and their desire to escape persecution, together with their missionary zeal, led Zinzendorf, their leader, to make an agreement with the Trustees of Georgia, whereby a colony of Moravians was to be planted in that state, with the assurance that they would not be required to bear arms. The members were known in America as

Herrnhuters or simply as "the Moravians." The Bohemian, Anthony Seifert, was the first preacher of the community. In 1736, the colony was strengthened by the arrival of additional settlers under the leadership of Bishop David Nitschmann (Nicman).⁴

The Herrnhuters became missionaries, converting both Indians and Negroes. In the course of time the settlement of Bethlehem (Pennsylvania) became the headquarters of their activity. Czech relics and books are still preserved there; sermons dealing with Hus and Komensky were, and still are, preached there, and in the cemetery there an Indian lies buried beside a white man—the first example of the democracy of which the Americans are very proud.⁵

SETTLEMENTS IN AMERICA

The Moravians founded other settlements in Pennsylvania. Although the original colony was prosperous, ultimately it came to naught as a result of a conflict with the other colonists during the Spanish attacks upon Georgia in 1737. The difficulty arose because of the refusal of the Moravians to take up arms in defense of the colony, the bearing of arms being contrary to their religious views, much as it was in the case of the Quakers in Pennsylvania. All the Moravians moved from Georgia to Nazareth, Pennsylvania, twelve leaving in 1738 and the remainder in 1740.

Bishop David Nitschmann went back to Europe in 1738, but rejoined his flock at Nazareth in 1740. This founder of Bethlehem was born at Zauchenthal (Suchdol, near Novy Jicin), in 1696. Persecuted for his beliefs, he fled in 1724 from his native Moravia to Herrnhut. In 1727, he was chosen an elder of the Herrnhut congregation, and the following year went to England to make the Moravian Church known there. In 1735 he was ordained the first Bishop of the Moravian Church. He arrived in Pennsylvania in 1740, just in time to provide for the distressed brethren whom George Whitefield was about to expel from his lands. Nitschmann found the sympathetic Justice Irish, agent of William Allen of Philadelphia, from whom he purchased 500 acres at the confluence of the Manakasy Creek and the Lehigh River. Here, in March, 1741, was built the first house in Bethlehem. There were other

Czechs active in the settlement. Catherine Pudmenska, widow of Frederick Reidel, was the first Moravian sister to engage in missionary work among the Indians. Her daughter, Mary Magdalene Rose, was the first Moravian child born in America, and later became the wife of Rev. Peter Boder. Among the men, John Michael Schober, a Czech, and Frederick Post, a Prussian, were the best known missionaries for the Indians. The late William Molin of Philadelphia traced his descent to one of the original Moravians of Bethlehem. He donated many old Czech books to the library of Bethlehem, and he is the author of the *History of the Bohemian Bible*, and *Zizka*. The Zeisbergers, too, are descendants of the Herrnhut and Bethlehem family of that name.

A famous member of the Moravian Brethren was Mathew Stach, the missionary. Born in Moravia, he emigrated to Herrnhut, Saxony. Later, learning of the need of missionaries in Greenland, he, together with his brother Christian, he departed for the northern field in 1732. After spending forty years in missionary labors in Greenland, he removed to North Carolina to rest among his co-religionists. He died in 1787 in North Carolina. The Ladies' Missionary Society erected a granite monument over his grave bearing this inscription: "Matheus Stach. Here lies buried the first Moravian missionary to Greenland."

In connection with the community in North Carolina, where Matthew Stach spent his declining years, Wachovia, as the community was called, was established in 1753 by a Pennsylvania contingent sent from Bethlehem. How many were real Czechs is hard to determine. Speaking the common German language, they were considered Germans by their neighbors, and even by local historians. That some of them belonged to the Czech nationality is beyond doubt, for Stach otherwise would hardly have gone thither to spend the remainder of his days.

WESLEY AND THE MORAVIAN BRETHREN

In 1736, enroute to Georgia, Bishop Nitschmann made the acquaintance of Charles Wesley, who was later converted to the sect and greatly aided its cause in England and America. In fact, the prayer-house of the first settlement in America was consecrated by the

Bishop of Herrnhut, Nitschmann, in the presence of the founder of the Methodist Church, John Wesley. In his Journal, Wesley commented on the Moravians with whom he was associated in the colony of Georgia and later in London, and his opinion is well known. What the Moravians thought of Wesley, however, has not been widely known; a report of August Gottlieb Spangenberg, leader of the Moravians in the Georgia colony, furnished an opinion of the young clergyman of the Church of England in the days of his sojourn in America. The report was sent from Georgia by Spangenberg to the authorities of the Moravian Church in Herrnhut, Saxony in 1737. Wesley left the colony in November of that year.

Spangenberg and Wesley were able to converse together in Latin, since both were university-trained men and familiar with the language, although Wesley knew little German and Spangenberg little English.

OTHER INFLUENCES ON AMERICAN LIFE

Since 1758, the Moravians have held impressive Easter Sunrise services, which have been known to attract as many as 50,000 people to the lovely Home Church in Winston-Salem. But the extensive influence of the Moravians on America's history is not limited to Pennsylvania, Georgia, and North Carolina, and sites of their origination. Surprisingly, the first settlers of Ohio were Moravian missionaries, who built there the first house for the white man, the first school, and the first

churches. They came from Pennsylvania and were mostly Germans, originally from Moravia and Poland. That their influence in the middle west was of great magnitude may be inferred from the fact that their leader, Reverend Heckelder, founded a settlement at the mouth of the River Cuyahoga, on which Cleveland is located.

Today, all the Moravian Brethren are Americanized. But their integration with the flow of America's life should not prevent the student of American and English history and of the growth of our nation from realizing that the influence of the ideas of the Moravian Brethren on America and on American Methodism through John Wesley has been one of the most important, yet little known, historical forces.

¹ See: Joseph S. Roucek, *Misapprehensions about Central-Eastern Europe in Anglo-Saxon Historiography* (Reprinted from the *Quarterly Bulletin of the Polish Institute of Arts and Sciences in America*, January, 1944), p. 15.

² Jan Herben, *John Huss and His Followers* (London: Geoffrey Bless, 1926) is a very readable introduction to the history of the whole movement.

³ Cf.: Joseph S. Roucek, "Jan Amos Komensky, The Spiritual Founder of Modern Masonry," *News Flashes from Czechoslovakia Under Nazi Domination* (Chicago: Czechoslovak National Council of America, May 8, 1944).

⁴ Rev. Vincent Novotny, "Early Czech Immigration to the United States," *C.-S. Student Life* (Lisle, Ill.), XXI, 4 (March, 1931), pp. 18-22 is the best study of the history of this movement.

⁵ The works of Adelaide L. Fries are indispensable for the understanding of the life of the Moravians in those early days; see, for instance: *The Road to Salem* (Chapel Hill, North Carolina: University of North Carolina Press, 1944); *The Moravians in Georgia 1735-1740* (Winston-Salem, N. C.: Author, 1905).

⁶ Based on: Douglas L. Rights, "A Moravian's Report on John Wesley—1737," *The South Atlantic Quarterly*, XLIII, 4 (October, 1944), pp. 406-9.

Developing the Awareness of Citizenship

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How can proper awareness of citizenship be developed? This was the largest problem that loomed before the eleventh grade social studies classes of Edina-Morningside Junior Senior High School one fall when studying their first unit, "Survey of Democracy." In this unit

persons and events of importance in the development of democracy in this country are studied and discussed. At the same time problems that confront democracy are enumerated and possible solutions to them presented. It was on this latter aspect that the students

discovered that two of the major problems facing democracy in this country were the distressing political apathy of many United States citizens and their cynical attitude towards politics.

In seeking a way to correct these problems, the classes decided, after much debate, that the sanest approach to them would be by starting right at home—in their own community. At the same time they thought they could develop in themselves a proper awareness of citizenship. It was agreed that it would be an excellent idea to remind Edina citizens of their duty to vote by a handbill to be delivered on every doorstep in the community. Before any definite action was taken, approval of the school's administrative office was requested and received. As events proved later, the administration was most cooperative in implementing this project. It furnished the paper and allowed money to be used for some of the incidental expenses.

Next, members from each class were chosen to be members of various committees. One committee was assigned the duty of planning the theme and wording of the handbill. Another, composed of girls who were taking typing, was detailed to prepare and run off a stencil; while a third committee, composed of boys who were enrolled in a printing class, was assigned the task of printing the handbills. A fourth committee got from the village clerk information about the past voting record of the community and also obtained maps from that official indicating the way in which the community was divided by districts for voting purposes.

The theme committee chose blue paper, imprinted in both red and black. In bold large red letters the question was asked, "Have you registered?" with an American flag in the upper left hand corner. The printing department was also responsible for placing a cobwebby grandfather clock, complete with mice, on the left side of the handbill. The rest of the handbill was stenciled and the following statements were made:

"If you're not in by October 17, then you'll be out on November 7.

"You can demonstrate effectively your appreciation of our form of government by voting.

"Remember, an alert, interested, and active

citizenry is the best bulwark of democracy. You can set a fine example for us, the younger generation, by taking your duty as citizens seriously.

"The deadline for registering is October 17, registration bureau is open daily for your convenience from 8:00 a.m. to 9:00 p.m. except Saturdays and Sundays."

Below this, in a box, was the warning: "Don't delay, register today!" At the bottom of the handbill were the words: "Prepared and circulated by the 11th grade social studies class of Edina-Morningside School on behalf of good citizenship."

In order that the handbills might have the most effect, it was decided to distribute them on October 12, Columbus Day, five days before registration closed. Since it was a holiday, it was convenient for the students to deliver them. The day before, the students were instructed as to their behavior during distribution of the handbills—they would not walk on lawns and each handbill would be placed in a prominent place where it could be easily seen yet could not be carried away by the wind.

When the students returned to school the following day, most of them were highly pleased with their accomplishment and enthusiastically expressed their belief in the worthwhileness of the project. The students also relayed messages from their parents praising this work. Telephone calls were received from citizens of the community, one of whom thought so highly of the project, that she informed a Minneapolis newspaper columnist of it. He was intensely interested in getting information concerning this project and called the school for more facts. He then wrote a fine, clear story on it. When the students read this account, they were of course highly pleased. The entire school, students as well as the faculty, liked the favorable publicity and the citizens were proud of the achievement of the school.

Because of the tremendous success of this distribution of the handbill, the students were most willing to repeat this activity again,—this time, to remind and to urge the citizens to vote on election day. Benefiting from the experience of the first distribution, the students found it much less difficult to organize every-

thing for this undertaking. The biggest problem was the selection of the theme for the second handbill. After much controversy, it was agreed that white paper and red and blue ink would be the most appealing and attractive. One of the boys who had artistic talent drew in the upper left hand corner of the stencil a hand dropping a ballot in a ballot box.

It was decided to print on the top of the handbill in large red letters two lines:

"Remember To Vote

On Tues., November 7th"

In addition, there was also printed in red ink, a large illustration of the "Spirit of '76" in the middle of the handbill. Remainder of the message was in blue type, part of which was superimposed on the illustration. The message was:

"IT IS DEPLORABLE THAT—

Hardly *fifty per cent* of the registered voters in this community voted in the September primary of this year.

In the mid-year election of 1946 only *thirty-eight* per cent of the voters in the nation voted and in the presidential election of 1948 only *fifty-two per cent* voted!

"DID YOU KNOW THAT—

In 1900, *eighty per cent* of the people actually voted, and this was before the enactment of the Nineteenth Amendment. (Women Suffrage)

In totalitarian countries people are intimidated to go to the polls and more than *ninety-five per cent* vote!

"DEMONSTRATE YOUR APPRECIATION OF THIS RIGHT GIVEN TO YOU BY THE BLOOD AND LIVES OF OUR FOREFATHERS.

"Let the voters in this community prove to our state, nation and the world that they not only have strong faith in democracy but also practice it by coming to the polls voluntarily!"

"LET US STRIVE FOR 100 PER CENT VOTER PARTICIPATION.

"DO YOUR PART—VOTE AND REMIND OTHERS TO DO THE SAME."

At the bottom of the handbill the sponsors were identified in the same manner as in the first handbill.

Between the dates of the distribution of the

handbills, the students were required to work at least one hour for some political candidate or party. The boys enjoyed greatly accompanying the car caravans. The boys furnished their own cars and with a number of other cars would drive into a nearby community. There under the supervision of a party publicity chairman they would blow their horns while driving down main street, stop, and distribute handbills on street corners. However, most of the students were engaged in office work—stuffing campaign literature in envelopes, sealing and addressing them, calling voters by telephone, urging them to vote—and the remainder were occupied in distributing campaign literature from house to house.

The candidates and parties were astonished at the students' offer of free help. The candidates had a prodigious amount of work to do and very few volunteers to do it. Upon completion of the required work, the student was instructed to obtain a note certifying the amount of time worked. All of the notes complimented the students upon their zeal and industry. What some of the students first thought would be drudgery turned out to be most enjoyable. Most of the students worked two or more hours, and without exception each claimed to have learned at first hand the great American game of politics. They also learned to have respect for most political candidates. They became aware of how much time, effort and planning is put into a political campaign. They also discovered the ways in which a party tries to win the public to its side. In addition, they had an opportunity to become acquainted with the qualifications of the various candidates. This was demonstrated very clearly when the students argued the issues and candidates with directness, logic and familiarity just before the final election. There was a sense of reality and first hand knowledge in their discussion rather than vagueness and a feeling of irrelevance.

The day after the elections the students were most eager to find out the result of their get-out-the-vote project. They felt repaid for the miles of walking and the hours they had devoted to this project when the results were announced. The national percentage of eligible voters who voted was 57 per cent. Seventy

per cent of the eligibles of Minneapolis, the adjacent city to this community, cast their ballots, but Edina's record was 82 per cent of its eligible voters. Needless to say this fine showing amazed the students and made them happy because they were, to a large degree, responsible for this fine showing of practicing the right to vote.

The students indicated the benefits of this project in many ways. Nearly all of the students did exceptionally well in a test based on elections, political personalities and problems. They also showed a great deal of interest in the political issues and tended to become better thinkers in analyzing for themselves the qualification of candidates and the propaganda of the parties. They learned to reserve judgment until they had investigated and thoroughly studied the various platforms.

The community was highly pleased by the favorable publicity it received for its excellent voting record. Nearby metropolitan news-

papers carried accounts of the project and its results in their columns and Governor Youngdahl of Minnesota publicly recognized and praised it. The candidates and political parties sent letters to the school conveying their deep appreciation and gratitude for the hours of toil the students had given in their behalf.

Taking everything into consideration, the project was considered to be highly successful by all concerned, but especially by the school. Edina-Morningside Junior Senior High School felt that the proper awareness of citizenship was developed in these ways. First it aroused interest in politics. Secondly, it gave a working knowledge of parties and platforms to the students. Finally, it encouraged the voters to come to the polls. However, the long-range benefit from this project will be seen when the students themselves reach voting age. A student who has worked to bring other citizens to the polls will not in good conscience absent himself when he becomes eligible to vote.

A Bibliographical Guide to the Study of History

With Selected References for Historical Research

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FOREWORD

This bibliography is an outgrowth of my booklet on the study of history. Its purpose is threefold. First of all, it serves to acquaint the beginner in history with some of the leading books on the subject. Secondly, it affords him an opportunity for some intensive reading on the various activities, interests, and problems of the historian. Finally, it seeks to guide him in his research as he progresses from his introductory to his more advanced courses, including proseminars and seminars. In general, it is a *representative* rather than an exhaustive list of books on history. A number of important references appearing in foreign languages have been included for the benefit of students who are primarily interested in European history.

Editor's Note: This is the first of several parts in which the *Bibliographical Guide* will appear. The second part will be published in the next issue.

For helpful suggestions in gathering references for this guide, the compiler is indebted to his colleagues in the department of history of the University of Maryland.

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FROM THE BOUND FILES

"In the high school we cannot expect to make historically erudite scholars of our pupils, but we can and must expect to make them intelligent in attitude toward the outstanding accomplishment's made in man's long struggle of learning to live in harmony with his environment."—Howard E. Wilson (Hist. Outlook, March, 1928)

"It would seem that in this post bellum period of reconstruction when we are reshaping our history curriculums we should take the opportunity to make a place for the Far East."—K. S. Latourette (Hist. Outlook, March, 1919)

Home Economists and the Facts of Life

HERBERT D. LAMSON

Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts

At the 1948 meetings of the National Council on Family Relations much attention was given to problems of interprofessional relationships among those working in the family relations field. We all had a good time telling each other what we thought of the strong and weak points in the efforts of the others. The following observations may be considered as a continuation of this interdisciplinary discussion. At these meetings I heard one home economist say that we are paying too much attention to the pelvis. I cannot believe that this is true. If this woman could hear some of the tales which come to me as a marriage counselor dealing with inadequate sexual adjustments I am sure that she would change her mind. In general home economists pay a tremendous amount of attention to one of man's needs—for food, but give inadequate notice to that other imperious need—sex.

As a teacher of a college course in marriage and as one doing book reviewing and counseling in this field I have been a little disappointed to find that although many home economists claim the whole field of family relationships as theirs, there are important regions of this garden which are not very well cultivated, if we may judge by the books which come from their pens and also by the professional journals.

I think it is true that in spite of the excellent work being done by some, many home economists neglect and are not at home in the general field of sex and human reproduction and the more intimate sides of interpersonal relations. This is to be deplored since in many cases the home economist is in a strategic position to do a good job for her pupils and clients. For example, in many high school and college courses in home economics there is an excellent opportunity in discussing family relationships to bring in adjustment in the sexual sphere. Many questions come to teachers which they should be able to handle for the benefit of these students. The findings of Dr. Kinsey should show us the importance of the sexual aspects of development at the high school period.

Again, in the agricultural extension work and in home demonstration classes, in visiting homes and in club work there are many chances to invite from these clients questions of a deeper psychological and perhaps biological nature than merely the ordinary run of topics which are handled. Food preparation and preservation, kitchen arrangement and home management are all very important, but it would seem a little ridiculous to conduct classes in home management and yet to say nothing about the management of one of the most important areas of adjustment in marriage and family life, the basic psycho-biological adjustments between husband and wife. Think how much marriage counseling the home extension staffs could do toward the preservation of our homes were they adequately prepared.

One who looks through the index of the *Journal of Home Economics*, for example, will not find very much mention of sexual topics either as an adjustment area between husband and wife, or as a subject in the management of children. This is a little astonishing to an outsider in view of the fact that one of the majors in many state universities within the home economics field is that of child development. Certainly sex education is an important part of any child's development.

Not long ago I reviewed two books by home economists in the general field of adult education for homemaking. I looked in vain in these volumes for any recognition that in the field of homemaking the sexual and biological factors are of importance. Nor could I find in these books any mention of the sex guidance of children. Yet this is often a very baffling topic for parents. It would seem that if home economists are to consider the whole field of family relationships as theirs then they must equip themselves to handle these topics even if there is a lot of "thin ice" connected with them.

There may be on the part of some teachers fear of opposition if they attempt to do this

(Continued on page 75)

Topic T 20. War and Reconstruction

STUDY OUTLINE

1. The Belligerents
 - a. Geography and the war: seaports; major routes for troop movements; location of belligerent capitals
 - b. Comparison of Confederacy and Union: in population, wealth, productive capacities, transportation facilities, merchant marine, armed forces, and control of the sea; military advantages, handicaps
 - c. North and South viewpoints on nationalism, states' rights, interpretation of Constitution
 - d. War plans
 - 1) Southern: defense mainly; seize federal forts, navy yards, etc.; control border slave states; capture Washington and impose peace
 - 2) Northern: offense mainly; blockade ports; control border states; split Confederacy; capture Richmond and compel surrender
2. The War Between the States
 - a. Effecting war plans by land: notable campaigns, battles, commanders, the supporting naval operations, and other military events in each year of the war
 - b. By sea: blockade of South and its effects—blockade running; the Trent Affair; Battle of Monitor and Merrimac—significance; famed Confederate cruisers and their activities—British aid
3. Civil Affairs
 - a. Lincoln, the War President: his views—the First Inaugural; Cabinet; martial law—suspension of writ of *habeas corpus*; dealing with southern sympathizers (Copperheads); role as commander in chief; winning the nation's confidence
 - b. Lincoln's position on slavery: before 1860 and at outbreak of war; steps to the Emancipation Proclamation—its effects
 - c. Union domestic affairs: raising money—tariffs, bonds and treasury notes, paper money (greenbacks), taxes; the new national banks and war financing; national debt at war's end. Other measures—admission of Kansas and West Virginia, the Homestead Act and Morrill Act, prohibition of slavery, the draft and draft riots. Wartime life and conditions
 - d. Election of 1864: issues, parties, candidates; outcome
 - e. Lincoln's views on Reconstruction: his plan and Congress's reaction
 - f. Confederate civil affairs: making a constitution—leading southern statesmen; finance—taxes and loans, inflated paper money, steadily worsening financial conditions, the debt at war's end; the choked-off cotton markets and loss of foreign trade; foreign recognition of belligerent rights only; English attitudes toward Confederacy. Wartime life and conditions
4. Assassination of Lincoln; consequences
5. Reconstruction, 1865-1877
 - a. Problems: status of seceding states—how restore them to Union; how deal with ex-Confederates; the freedmen
 - b. Reconstruction theories: "state-suicide," conquered territory, Lincoln-Johnson theories
 - c. Presidential Reconstruction: action of Lincoln and Johnson—13th Amendment; extent of reconstruction by December, 1865—undone by Congress
 - d. Congressional Reconstruction: Congressional leaders—the "black Republicans"; dispute between Johnson and Congress; enactment of Freedmen's Bureau, Civil Rights, and Tenure of Office acts; Congressional policies respecting states reconstructed by Johnson, ex-Confederates, Negroes; Reconstruction Act of 1867
 - e. Impeachment of Johnson—why; outcome
 - f. Election of 1868
 - g. Completion of Reconstruction: southern state constitutions; suffrage for freedmen; 14th, 15th Amendments; misrule by carpet-bag governments; role of Union troops in reconstructing the states. Ku Klux Klan—methods, disorders, success; restoration of white control, disfranchisement of Negroes. Withdrawal of troops; consequences of Reconstruction

AIDS TO LEARNING

AUDIO-VISUAL

Abraham Lincoln (16 mm. silent film; 30 min.). Encyclopedia Britannica Films

Public Life of Abraham Lincoln (16 mm. sound film; 33 min.). NuArt Films, Inc., 112 W. 48 Street, New York 19; also Eastin Pictures Co.

Lincoln Speaks at Gettysburg (16 mm. sound film; 10 min.). A F Films, Inc., Room 1001, 1600 Broadway, New York 19

Dixie (16 mm. silent film; 36 min.). Chronicles of America Photoplay, by Yale University Press

Land of Liberty, Reel II (20 min.); Jefferson Davis Declares Secession (6 min.); Angel of Mercy (10 min.); Clara Barton; Johnson and Reconstruction (33 min.) (16 mm. sound films). Teaching Film Custodians

The Story of Abraham Lincoln; The War for Southern Independence; The Country During Civil Wartime and Reconstruction (filmstrips). Society for Visual Education

Lincoln in the White House (filmstrip). Pictorial Events

Great American Presidents (filmstrip). Curriculum Films

History of the American Negro (filmstrip). The Bryant Foundation; also Current History Films

Slavery and the War Between the States (26 slides). The Pageant of America Lantern Slides, by Yale University Press

"You Are There" (Battle of Gettysburg) (long playing or 78 r.p.m. records). Columbia Records, Inc., Educational Department, 1473 Barnum Ave., Bridgeport, Conn.; or Henry Holt and Co., 257 Fourth Ave., New York 10

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HISTORIES

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W. E. Dodd, *Expansion and Conflict*; F. L. Paxson, *The New Nation* (Riverside History of the U. S.)

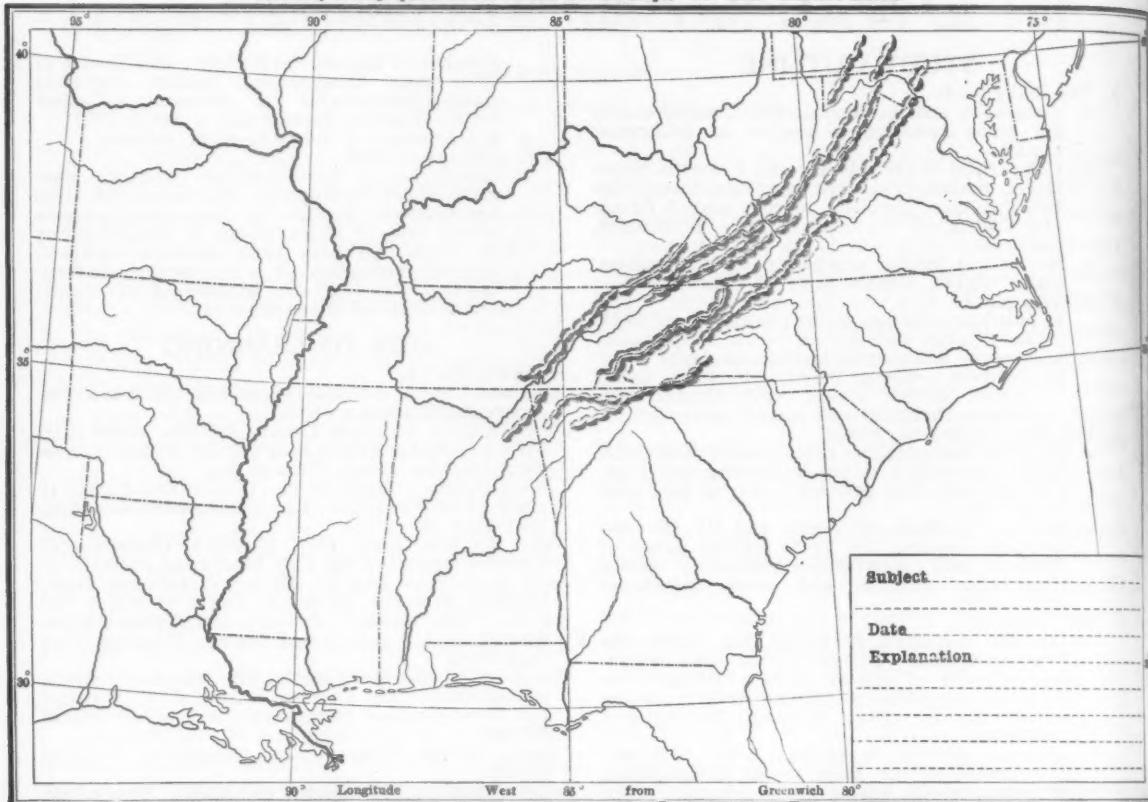
W. E. Dodd, *The Cotton Kingdom*; J. Macy, *The Anti-Slavery Crusade*; N. W. Stephenson, *Abraham Lincoln and the Union* and *The Days of the Confederacy*; W. Wood, *Captains of the Civil War*; W. L. Fleming, *The Sequel of Appomattox* (The Chronicles of America, vols. 27-32)

J. K. Hosmer, *The Appeal to Arms and The Outcome of the Civil War*; W. A. Dunning, *Reconstruction, Political and Economic* (The American Nation, vols. 20-22)

F. L. Paxson, *The Civil War*; P. L. Haworth, *Reconstruction and Union* (Home University Library)

¹ This is the twentieth of a series of History Topics for American History prepared by Morris Wolf, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.

McKinley's Geographical and Historical Outline Mapa. No. 188c. Southern States.



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MAP STUDY FOR TOPIC T20: THE WAR BETWEEN THE STATES

Locate and name: 1. the main physical features; 2. the belligerent capitals and "Peninsular Campaigns"; 3. the lines of march of Grant in the West and Sherman from the West to Savannah; 4. the notable battles.

W. Wilson, *Division and Reunion* (Epochs of American History)
 W. Wood & R. H. Gabriel, *In Defense of Liberty* (The Pageant of America, vol. 7)
 H. Carter, *Lower Mississippi*; T. D. Clark, *The Kentucky*; D. Davidson, *The Tennessee*; J. Davis, *The Shenandoah*; F. A. Gutheim, *Potomac*; B. Niles, *The James* (Rivers of America Series)
 J. T. Adams, *Album of American History*, III, and *America's Tragedy*; C. A. & M. R. Beard, *The Rise of American Civilization*; C. M. Blackford, III (ed.), *Letters from Lee's Army* . . . ; C. G. Bowers, *The Tragic Era*; R. P. Butterfield, *The American Past*; E. M. Coulter, *The South During Reconstruction*; M. B. Davidson, *Life in America*; J. W. DeForest, *A Volunteer's Adventures*; J. H. Franklin, *From Slavery to Freedom*; S. F. Horn, *Gallant Rebel*; M. Kantor, *Lee and Grant at Appomattox*; L. Lewis, *Myths After Lincoln*; S. Lorant, *The Presidency*; R. Meredith, *Mr. Lincoln's Cameraman*; H. D. Milhollen & M. Kaplan, *Presidents on Parade*; A. Nevins, *Ordeal of the Union*; J. F. Rhodes, *History of the U.S.*, III-VII and *History of the Civil War*; A. Rogers & F. L. Allen, *The American Procession*;

C. Sandburg, *Storm Over the Land*; F. B. Simkins, *The South, Old and New*; I. Stone, *They Also Ran Biographies*; Mrs. J. Adams, *Stonewall*; W. E. Barton, *The Great Good Man*; G. Bradford, *Union Portraits and Confederate Portraits*; H. C. Brown, *Grandmother Brown's Hundred Years*; J. H. Daugherty, *Abraham Lincoln*; H. J. Eckenrode, *Jefferson Davis*; D. S. Freeman, *R. E. Lee*; W. L. Goss, *Boy's Life of General Sheridan*; W. H. Hale, *Horace Greeley*; S. F. Horn, *The Boy's Life of Robert E. Lee*; L. Lewis, *Sherman*; J. C. Long, *The Liberal Presidents*; T. Monaghan, *Diplomat in Carpet Slippers* (Lincoln); C. Sandburg, *Abraham Lincoln*; W. O. Stevens, *Glasgow Farragut*; H. L. Stoddard, *Horace Greeley*; J. W. Thomason, *J.E.B. Stuart*; R. W. Winston, *Andrew Johnson*; T. F. Woodley, *Great Leveler* (Thad. Stevens). Consult the American Statesmen Series and the Dictionary of American Biography

ATLASSES

Harper's Atlas of American History; C. L. & E. H. Lord, *Historical Atlas of the U.S.*; C. O. Paullin, *Atlas of the . . . U.S.*, Plates 163, 164

WAR AND PEACE



A river combat during the Union operations on the Mississippi. The artist has attempted to give an idea of the character and dangers of naval warfare.



Union soldiers distributing food in the South after the war. Within a few months after Lee's surrender millions of army rations were given out to whites and blacks.

STORIES

M. P. Allen, *White Feather*; R. Brier, *Boy in Blue*; G. W. Cable, *The Cavalier*; W. Churchill, *The Crisis*; S. Crane, *The Red Badge of Courage*; T. Dixon, *The Clansman . . . and The Leopard's Spots*; A. Dwight, *Linn Dickson, Confederate*; H. S. Edwards, *Eneas Africanus*; J. Fox, *Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come*; E. Glasgow, *The Battleground and The Voice of the People*; A. J. Hanna, *Flight into Oblivion*; M. Kantor, *Long Remember*; M. Minnigerode, *Cornelia Chantrell*; M. Mitchell, *Gone With the Wind*; H. Morrow, *Great Captain*; T. N. Page, *Red Rock and Two Little Confederates*; M. E. Sheppard, *Cabins in the Laurel*; E. Singmaster, *A Boy at Gettysburg and Gettysburg*; J. D. Whiting, *The Trail of Fire*; B. A. Williams, *A House Divided*; S. Young, *So Red the Rose*

SOURCES

H. S. Commager, (ed.), *The Blue and the Gray*; H. S. Commager, *Documents of American History*, 201-231, 245-267, 269-273; H. S. Commager & A. Nevins, *The Heritage of America*, 143-190; S. E. Forman, *Sidelights on Our . . . History*, pp. 43-45, 489-496; A. B. Hart, *American History Told by Contemporaries*, IV, chs. 13-25; F. Monaghan, *Heritage of Freedom*, 48-54, 78, 84; D. S. Muzzey, *Readings in American History*, 93-102; *Old South Leaflets*, 11, 107, 158, 189; *Veterans of Foreign Wars, America*, VIII, IX ("The Civil War," "Reconstruction")

LINCOLN ON UNION AND SLAVERY,
AND ON RECONSTRUCTION

UNION AND SLAVERY

EXECUTIVE MANSION,

WASHINGTON, Friday, Aug. 22, 1862.

HON. HORACE GREELEY:

DEAR SIR: . . . As to the policy I "seem to be pursuing," as you say, I have not meant to leave any one in doubt. I would save the Union, I would save it in the shortest way under the Constitution.

The sooner the national authority can be restored, the nearer the Union will be—the Union as it was.

If there be those who would not save the Union unless they could at the same time save slavery, I do not agree with them.

If there be those who would not save the Union unless they could at the same time destroy slavery, I do not agree with them.

My permanent object is to save the Union and not either to save or destroy slavery.

If I could save the Union without freeing any slave, I would do it—and if I could save it by freeing all the slaves, I would do it—and if I could save it by freeing some and leaving others alone, I would also do that.

What I do about slavery and the colored race, I do because I believe it helps to save the Union, and what I forbear, I forbear because I do not believe it would help to save the Union.

I shall do no less whenever I shall believe what I am doing hurts the cause, and shall do more whenever I believe doing more will help the cause. . . .

Yours,

A. LINCOLN.

[September 13, 1862, Lincoln gave an audience to a delegation from all the religious denominations of Chicago, presenting a memorial for the immediate issue of an emancipation proclamation. In his reply the President spoke in part as follows:—] . . . Now, then, tell me, if you please, what possible result of good would follow the issuing of such a proclamation as you desire? Understand, I raise no objections against it on legal or constitutional grounds, for, as Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy, in time of war I suppose I have a right to take any measure which may best subdue the enemy, nor do I urge objections of a moral nature, in view of possible consequences of insurrection and massacre at the South. I view this matter as a practical war measure, to be decided on according to the advantages or disadvantages it may offer to the suppression of the rebellion.

[September 22, 1862—five days after the Battle of Antietam—, Lincoln issued a preliminary proclamation stating that on Jan. 1, 1863, all slaves within any state or part of a state, the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States, shall be then and forever free, and that the executive would, on that date, designate the states and parts of states if any in which the people shall then be in rebellion.]

OWEN LOVEJOY TO WM. LLOYD GARRISON

WASHINGTON, February 22, 1864.

Recurring to the President there are a great many reports concerning him which seem to be reliable and authentic, which, after all, are not so. It was currently reported among the anti-slavery men of Illinois that the emancipation proclamation was extorted from him by the outward pressure, and particularly by the delegation from the Christian Convention that met at Chicago. Now, the fact is this, as I had it from his own lips: He had written the proclamation in the summer, as early as June, I think—but will not be certain as to the precise time—and called his Cabinet together, and informed them he had written it, and meant to make it, but wanted to read it to them for any criticism or remarks as to the features or details. After having done so, Mr. Seward suggested whether it would not be well for him to withhold its publication until after we had gained some substantial advantage in the field, as at that time we had met with many reverses, and it might be considered a cry of despair. He told me he thought the suggestion a wise one, and so held on the proclamation until after the battle of Antietam. . . . —McPherson, *Political History of the Rebellion*, 231-233, 334.

Lincoln's overarching purpose was to preserve the Union, and he subordinated the slavery issue to it. Notice how clearly, how simply, he described that purpose in his letter to the famous New York editor, Horace Greeley. What accusation was made against Lincoln as a result of the audience granted the Chicago delegation and what were the actual facts, according to that audience, the Battle of Antietam, and the preliminary proclamation concerning emancipation support Lovejoy's statement?

LINCOLN'S LAST SPEECH, APRIL 11, 1865.

. . . In the annual message of December, 1863, and accompanying proclamation, I presented a plan of reconstruction (as the phrase goes) which I promised, if adopted by any State, should be acceptable to, and sustained by the Executive Government of the nation. I distinctly stated that this was not the only plan which might possibly be acceptable; and I also distinctly protested that the Executive claimed no right to say when or whether such members should be admitted to seats in Congress from such States. . . .

I have been shown a letter on this subject, supposed to be an able one, in which the writer expresses regret that my mind has not seemed to be definitely fixed on the question whether the seceded States, so-called, are in the Union or out of it. . . . As appears to me, that question has not been, nor yet is, a practically material one, and that any discussion of it, while it thus remains practically immaterial, could have no effect other than the mischievous one of dividing our friends. As yet, whatever it may hereafter become, that question is bad, as a basis of a controversy, and good for nothing at all—a merely pernicious abstraction. We all agree that the seceded States, so-called, are out of their proper practical relation with the Union, and that the sole object of the Government, civil and military, in regard to those States, is to again get them into that proper practical relation? I believe it is not only possible, but in fact easier to do this without deciding, or ever considering, whether these States have ever been out of the Union, than with it. . . . —McPherson, *Political History of the Rebellion*, Appendix, 609.

Lincoln's last speech was made only three days before his assassination. What simple, practical view of Reconstruction did he take?

(Continued from page 70)

type of work. To be sure, there are many who feel this lack and who on the side quietly carry out work of this nature. All due credit should be given to these people. But it seems as if now is the time for greater public recognition of sex as a normal part of the home economics curriculum as well as of the subjects of sociology, psychology, and biology.

On a number of occasions I have been fooled by the titles of books by home economists writing on family life education. I have ordered these books by title and upon later examination have been rather chagrined to find that, from the viewpoint of this particular author, sex topics are way out on a limb somewhere to which the writer does not care or dare to climb. It would seem inexcusable for any person writing in the family relations field to leave these topics out, especially since they can and do cause so much disharmony in marriages. How can these relationships be "wholesome," "harmonious," let alone "creative" if sex is not well adjusted? We must of course recognize the interplay of sexual and non-sexual elements. Too many books by home economists are written as if man, as someone has said, were "smooth from the waist down."

In the recommendations of the National Council on Family Relations dealing with marriage counseling, home economics is one of the fields of advanced learning leading up to marriage counseling. This is as it should be. It would seem to be a little curious, to say the least, to consider home economics as a basis for marriage counseling if in the home economics curricula in various colleges at the undergraduate and graduate levels there is no adequate training for understanding and advising in the sexual field. It would seem as though home economics is either afraid of this area, has never been oriented in it, or has some emotional blocking which prevents a free discussion of this field.

It is true that many teachers of home economics are not married. This is also true of medical secretaries and of nurses. But this does not mean that they cannot become competent and at home in the more intimate phases of personal adjustment and still remain moral girls. Marriage might help, but non-marriage should not exclude. Sometimes marriage might

not even help. We do not have to experience everything that we discuss. It would seem that the time has arrived when sex education and sex adjustment should cease to be maverick subjects. These topics should certainly be in the curricula in home economics.

In America at present we have each month hundreds of pretty pages in the slick magazines telling us how to run our homes and gardens. A home can have all of these things and yet fail. Is it not the interpersonal relations which really determine the quality of a home? This is a crucial area, perhaps more crucial than whether we boil carrots three or ten minutes, or eat them raw, or whether there are four or six steps from the kitchen sink to the dining room table. Whether or not there will be a separation or divorce depends primarily upon these intimate interpersonal relationships. And this is not to belittle household arrangement or the fine art of cookery.

A part of homemaking education involves the maintenance of health. Surely today this must include mental health. The sex factor in marriage and in childhood has a very definite bearing upon mental health. Is it not true that if the sex adjustment is not right, you will not for long be able to maintain satisfactory family relationships in the average home? A good sex adjustment in marriage has both mental and physical health aspects. If these are not right people may put on a front, but no amount of redecorating, time budgeting or pressure cookery will cure them.

In the ten points dealing with the content of homemaking education as described in the pamphlet of the U. S. Office of Education, entitled "Homemaking Education in Secondary Schools of the United States," 1947, point three is "Care and Guidance of Children." Point Six is "Maintenance of Health." Point Ten is "Maintenance of Satisfactory Family Relationships." At all three of these points there must be adequate recognition of the sex factor else home economics is not telling the whole story. God, not Freud, put sex into men and women. From the family histories which my students write very few families give these students as children adequate sex guidance. This causes parent-child relations to deteriorate. Walls are created. Children discovered in sex episodes are often unwisely and hysterically handled by

adults. Are not these situations of concern to home economists? Too many marriages are spoiled by girls who are deathly afraid of childbirth. Stories are handed down through the generations in spite of advances in obstetrics. Home economists have a chance to put a stop to these fears with their students. My plea is not that we overemphasize sex but that we give it adequate recognition which it is not now getting. I presume that if sex is mentioned in some courses there will always be persons who will think that it is being overemphasized. If home economics is to branch out into child development, into mental hygiene, into interpersonal relationships within the family, then it must really become inclusive.

Lately there has been much emphasis upon "life adjustment education." Vocational educators want particular attention paid to the sixty per cent of all high school youth who are being trained neither for college nor for any specific skill. There is plenty of evidence that school age children need help with personal problems. A study by the Michigan Guidance Council showed that in one school month some 235 teachers in 57 different public high schools were asked to help students with 4,682 problems, two-thirds of these problems concerning

family relationships, health, religion, finance, boy-girl relations and group acceptance. Nearly three million children now in school suffer serious emotional or behavior problems, says the same source.

Dr. William C. Menninger, author of *Psychiatry in A Troubled World*, says, "Since human relationships are basic why should not all of our educational institutions provide a place in the curriculum for the study of the principles of mental as well as physical hygiene?"

In view of the fact that many of our high school youngsters do not go on to college, and in view of the fact that many will be married in a rather short time after graduating, why is it not the duty of home economists in such schools to prepare them not only to cook, but also to be good husbands and wives? Many students want this, but the elders are reluctant.

From an interdisciplinary point of view, then, may a sociologist suggest that home economists be so trained that they can rise in larger numbers to meet the present opportunities for premarital counseling, for postmarital counseling, especially in those whitewashed areas too often ignored by those to whom students look for leadership?

American Public Opinion Prior to Foreign Wars

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Another war ahead perhaps? We hope not. Yet, if war did come again, we Americans would be closely united in our efforts. Of course there are many ideas being expressed as to what our foreign policy should be. But what has been our viewpoint previous to other foreign wars? Did other wars receive the united backing of all Americans? And have we always gone to war with reluctance? Let us take a brief look at what the American was thinking before conflicts with foreign nations.

The War of 1812—Our first major foreign entanglement was the War of 1812 with

England. That was the period of the Napoleonic Wars when our rights at sea as a neutral were being violated by both sides. Indeed, we had a hard time deciding whom to fight. At first we almost came to war with France, England's enemy. While some people praised the efforts being made to keep peace between America and France, *Porcupine's Gazette* in September 1797 asked why we were too timid to protest to France about our sufferings. In January of the next year the same newspaper claimed that a war with France would bring free passage over the seas, a commercial re-

vival, the end of the threat in the West from the French in Louisiana, and the end to the intrigue of French agents preaching the "holy right of insurrection."

However, cries for war with England were stronger, particularly after the British *Leopard* fired upon and boarded the American naval ship, *Chesapeake*. The administration was censured for enlisting four British deserters on that ship. The firing by the British on our navy was clearly an attack on American sovereignty and brought the New York *Evening Post* in 1807 to demand "reparations or war." The Washington *National Intelligence* wondered if the responsibility for the outrage lay with the British cabinet or with subordinates. A few Americans suggested an embargo, but the shipowners had a tolerant attitude toward impressment, considering it merely a temporary inconvenience to sailors. An embargo would ruin their business!

The Washington *National Intelligence* in April, 1812, demanded war with England. It claimed that, while the French had become more favorable in their terms, there was no hope for a British settlement and further negotiations would be dishonorable. The cause seemed just, and besides it would be impossible for England to send troops here. Other Americans who wanted war with England believed that Canada could easily be taken.

But not all Americans were so ready to jump into war in 1812. There was much opposition to "Mr. Madison's War," America's most unpopular war. Opposition centered in the Federalists of New England, with Massachusetts' commercial interests leading the protest.

These Americans believed that war would interrupt commerce and ruin the nation. Only speculators would profit. Rumors of English aid to Indians in the West were discounted. The New York *Evening Post* lamented that the shore was defenseless, and who would join the army at five dollars when any ambitious young man could easily earn fifteen dollars a month on his own? The paper condemned a war of conquest and argued that our territory was already too large to defend, so why add Canada?

The news of the declaration of war brought to New England a "day of humiliation" with church bells tolling and flags at half mast.

There was good reason to wonder why we were fighting this useless war with Britain, the champion of freedom, who was at that time fighting for her life against Napoleon.

The Wars of Expansion. In the 1830's and on into the 1840's there was a crisis in Canadian-American relations. Most Americans were anxious to avert war as long as possible, but many believed that another war with Great Britain must come. British institutions were distasteful and Canada blocked expansion of America to the Northwest.

Should we interfere in Canada? Most people said not. Perhaps the Canadians did not understand or appreciate liberty. Anyway, Americans reasoned, in due time Canada by its own action would join the United States. The annexation of Canada was her business, not ours. War was not necessary.

Meanwhile "Manifest Destiny" in another direction was leading to war with Mexico in 1846. It was a popular war. Americans were not at all reluctant to go to war. The New York *Herald* admitted that people wanted excitement. The West was restless. The South held military glory in high esteem. Even the more conservative and commercial East could see no danger or risks. It was conceived that one bold dash would bring victory. As the *Commercial Bulletin* put it, it would be "an adventure full of fun and frolic and holding forth rewards of opulence and glory."

Mexico was known as the "garden spot of the Americas," and was imagined to be full of wealth. The expansionists expressed themselves in the New York *Morning News* which asked: "Who's next, California or Canada?"

Most Americans believed the war to be just. Mexico should be given a lesson before Europe intervened. Some suspected that France and particularly England backed Mexico.

Much blame was laid on the Mexican government for atrocities. The American flag had been insulted, a minister threatened and consuls mistreated. The United States government was officially smeared by Mexico. Treaties were broken. Citizens were persecuted and their property taken. Worst of all, complaints were mocked.

Yet opposition to war with Mexico was not treason. The naturally good-hearted American said Mexicans could not be expected to know

very much and it was taken for granted that they would misunderstand the Texas annexation. Some realized that our own citizens were to blame for the troubles, while anti-slavery people opposed expansion to the south. The war was attacked as an unjust effort to get California. Following the favorite American custom of blaming the President, some people accused President Polk of deliberately planning the war for personal and party reasons in order to cover up the compromise with Britain in Oregon and to further chances for re-election.

The Monroe Doctrine brought trouble when England had a boundary dispute with Venezuela in 1895. President Cleveland's demand that Britain accept arbitration was stated in very strong terms. The Indianapolis *News* in December, 1895, said the United States should not back down but should fight for "right and principle." But the New York *World* noted that Britain was no menace in Venezuela to us, that we were not prepared for war, and that the world had no sympathy for our claims. War seemed absurd, but the Milwaukee *Sentinel* came up with the usual explanation that the President was using this for a re-election campaign.

In 1898 the martial spirit brought another national adventure, the Spanish-American War. It was military aggression, but never before had there been so much righteousness. Americans said it was not a war of conquest, but a war to restore civilization to Cuba. The Brooklyn *Eagle* in April, 1898, said it was a war "in the name of humanity at America's sacrifice." The Washington *Star* saw it as our "duty" to reform Cuba by pushing out the Spanish. Carl Schurz, the statesman-orator, even labeled it "a case of self-sacrifice."

The Kansas City *Times* criticized the President for not demanding war immediately after the *Maine* disaster. The New York *Journal* claimed that intervention in Cuba would have prevented the sinking of the *Maine*. The burden of proof was on Spain because the "accident" would greatly help the growing Spanish fleet. The paper went on to attack the anarchy in Cuba, "known to all except Wall Street," which had destroyed trade and property. It demanded immediate recognition of Cuba, stating that if we could not have peace, "let us fight and have it over with."

There was little opposition to financing the war, but there were some Americans who had a "feeling of shame and humiliation." Of course, President McKinley was named as a victim of political ambition, and the Brooklyn *Eagle* accurately predicted that Theodore Roosevelt would "have his share of strut and sensation."

The First World War. The American at the turn of the century believed that war was outdated. For instance, E. L. Godkin writing in the *Century* magazine in 1897 said that it was true armies were growing larger, but each nation said that was in the interest of peace; it was merely for protection from other nations. This attitude, it was thought, was at least an advance over the former practice of announcing that conquest was the purpose of increased mobilization.

Pro-Ally and pro-German feeling both existed in public opinion previous to the First World War, but America was anxious to stay out of any conflict.

When war broke out in Europe in 1914, Theodore Roosevelt expressed the national attitude when he said we must maintain complete neutrality. The nation was glad that there was no entangling alliance making European intervention necessary, but the New York *World* wondered whether Washington's plea for isolation was as wise in the Twentieth Century as it had been in the Eighteenth. On the other hand, Americans wondered if either side in Europe could really have a victory.

America was determined to stay at peace—unless it was forced into war by the action of another nation. Our involvement in the First World War was similar to that of the war of 1812 which came partially as a result of mistreatment of our rights on the seas as a neutral.

Pro-Ally sentiment was dominant in the East and among the upper class, while the pro-Germans and the isolationists prevailed in the Midwest. Jews who hated Russia, Irish who hated England, Americans who still thought of England in terms of the Boston Massacre, and scholars who had studied in Germany were usually anti-British. But German-Americans in self-defense against their neighbors often became vigorous supporters of the Allies.

As a result of the Belgian atrocities and the sinking of the *Lusitania*, the pro-Ally move-

ment grew. Then, late in 1916, when German submarines ceased operations, opinion turned somewhat against the Allies because of their blockades. But most of the nation was anti-German because of sentimental and cultural ties with England, the belief that Germany started the war, and her shocking use of the submarine.

The *World's Work* in 1915 argued that we should help the Allies, for later Germany might attack us. The Kansas City *Star* in 1918 said we should be ashamed of having done nothing yet: "To hell with the Hapsburg and the Hohenzollern." "I didn't raise my boy to be a soldier" was a popular pacifist line. But W. R. Thayer in *Harper's* in 1917 attacked pacifism as a "screen for cowardice" and as German propaganda. The supposed decline in patriotism was attributed to foreign elements in the population and to the deterioration of the wealthy class. Lack of patriotism was selfishness and "peace at any price" treason.

Americans, who had taken Cuba in a moment of imperialistic impulse, refused to listen to propaganda that aid should be given the Allies in order to benefit American industry. Industry may have profited from the war, but America did not go to war to seek profits.

Most Americans believed we should fight Germany if she actually injured us, but, as the *World's Work* put it in 1915, we should not fight her just for possible future wrongs. We wouldn't drift into war; Germany would force it; a renewal of submarine warfare would bring instant American intervention. Even German sympathizers wished the United States to protect American lives. The price of peace was too high.

The Second World War. Public opinion previous to the Second World War ran all the way from that of the extreme isolationists to the interventionists who demanded that America immediately assume the role of world leader and restore peace in Europe and Asia.

The isolationists made a strange group in the variety of their motives for expressing concern for their country. The group included pacifists, patriots thinking war would harm America, businessmen such as the National Association of Manufacturers, Communists until June, 1941, native Fascists such as Father Coughlin, recent immigrants, social reformers

concerned only with America, Roosevelt-haters, and, of course, Axis agents.

The isolationists insisted that strict neutrality and isolation could keep us out of this war. The variety of reasons put forth for non-intervention demonstrates the strange assortment of isolationists. War would bring to America regimentation, Fascism, Communism. It would weaken the capitalist structure, or it would strengthen it. It would mean expensive post-war reconstruction.

The Fascists called it a "Jewish" war, "blood business" for the benefit of international financiers. The Communists explained that it was an "imperialistic" war, in spite of the fact that the *Wall Street Journal* was quite isolationist in the early phase of the war.

Some other isolationists considered Germany essential in stopping the "Asiatic Hordes," that is, Russia. Senator Taft feared a Communist victory in Europe more than a Nazi.

Among the more rational arguments there was an appeal to history. A Senate committee reported that the United States was an insular nation, undefeatable with a strong air and sea defense. To this amazing discovery it was added that the nation was not vulnerable to air attack, but it was admitted that the navy was not capable of fighting in both oceans at once.

A great variety of propaganda was in the air, and it was asked if we had enough accurate information to intervene. Distrust of Great Britain and its propaganda prevailed even beyond the Irish element. On college campuses the faculty was largely interventionist and assailed youth's failure to see the "moral issue." The general sentiment of youth seemed to be to fight only in case of inconceivable eventualities.

Many believed that there was no danger of an Allied collapse but that the inability to win should not be mistaken for defeat. Aid to Britain might be as futile as British aid was to France. By remaining out of the war the United States would be the means by which the world would recover. It was also argued that even a triumphant Germany would be exhausted for decades.

The real basis of non-intervention, however, was the failure of America's previous crusade for democracy. Americans wondered if another

war would make the "world safe for democracy" any more than the other war. There was much hostility to the revival of the old idealism and the war atrocity stories. The *Saturday Evening Post* condemned the "moral urge to go to war." And there were the First World War veterans who argued simply but forcefully, "War is hell."

The strength of the interventionists gradually mounted. Walter Winchell in September, 1939, predicted our entry into war within three months. Drew Pearson feared Allied defeat unless our troops were in the trenches by Christmas. In that September most of the nation considered Germany responsible for starting the war and a danger to the United States if Britain and France fell. Forty-four per cent, according to Dr. Gallup, favored our entry into war if the Allies needed our help, while 16 per cent wished immediate participation. Six months later, however, even the 76 per cent believing our entry inevitable had dropped to 32 per cent.

Despite the early decline of opinion favoring intervention, the public later approved the peace-time draft and the destroyer trade with Britain. By autumn of 1940 the majority favored aid to Britain even if it meant war, but it was generally believed that the United States would become involved only through self-defense, while the menace of Japan was ignored by the public. There was heavy support for Lend-Lease in March 1941 and soon the public demanded that the United States protect ships carrying Lend-Lease. It was now "everything short of war" because it was "not practical to send troops."

Interventionists argued that an Axis victory would mean the loss of trade, a total defense program, the lowering of American prestige, a decadent democracy and a spiritual loss. It seemed that a war against Hitler was certainly "just."

Isolationism faded as hopes of an early and easy Allied victory disappeared. It was urged that the more we aided the Allies, the more chance we had for peace. The United States could not afford anything less than an Allied victory.

The demand for war or peace by Americans is not a measurement of their patriotism but is their idea of how a crisis should be met. For

instance, while it is true that the pre-World War Two isolationists included Communists with their own motives, no one could doubt that Senator Taft was sincerely loyal when he advocated isolationism. We have seen that before each foreign conflict opinion varied enormously from group to group and from time to time.

The foreign elements in our population have at times influenced our policies. Also, as a democracy ourselves, we have been inclined to favor other democracies. Commercial and industrial interests have led us into disputes such as the question of the freedom of the seas. But since our major interests have always been in domestic affairs, we usually have been too busy to step willfully into European struggles.

Most Americans hold to the traditional beliefs that America is the most generous, righteous, and strongest of nations. Actually our major policies, some of which have led to war, have been isolation, the Monroe Doctrine, freedom of the seas, open door, pacific settlement of disputes, Pan-Americanism, and political opportunism.

Public opinion is formed by Americans who, unfortunately, often know little about international problems. Women are generally less conscious of foreign affairs than are men. Low income groups and the poorly educated lack time, interest and background. Rural areas frequently are not as well informed as the city with its better schools, newspapers, and radio. The Midwest, with its sense of security, apparently lacks the interest in foreign matters that the East has, while the South, with many problems of its own, is also relatively uninformed.

In any event war is a nuisance to the American. Unpreparedness is a well-formed habit, but thus far has not meant disaster. The average citizen is hardly aware of the peacetime army, and the military has difficulty in telling the nation what to do.

We must see the enemy as stronger than ourselves or we excuse our interference in small countries as "keeping order." In order to fight with a clear conscience someone must knock the chip off our shoulder, just as Spain did in the *Maine* disaster and Japan did at Pearl Harbor.

The Teachers' Page

H. M. BOODISH

Dobbins Vocational Technical School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

For the past several years, staff members of the Office of Old Age and Survivors' Insurance have, upon invitation, come to our school and addressed our boys and girls studying social security. The speakers bring with them a film or slides or just talk to the students. The interest is so great that the short period allowed for questions is generally insufficient to cover all the queries in the minds of the listeners.

Following one of these presentations last term, I spent some time discussing with one of the field representatives, Mrs. Margaret D. Best, the 1950 amendments, particularly as they might relate to teachers who work after school or in the summer months. It occurred to me, as a result of this discussion, that an authoritative statement about old age and survivors' insurance as it might relate to teachers, would be of interest to members of our profession. I discussed this with the field representative who agreed to present the matter to Mr. Joseph J. Skorup, Jr., Manager of one of the Philadelphia offices. He responded generously with the statement that follows. I am sure it is timely and will be of interest.

SOCIAL SECURITY FOR YOU!

Do you know that you may qualify for Social Security benefits in addition to your Teachers' Retirement?

Many teachers work in employment covered by the Social Security Act during summer vacations; still others work on Saturdays and evenings at jobs other than teaching. They are building wage credits under Social Security. What will these wage credits mean for the worker? Federal Old-Age and Survivors' Insurance is just what the title implies—it is insurance, not charity. It is a means whereby the worker, in his years of productivity, contributes through his earnings toward a measure of protection for himself and his family in his old age, and for his family if he should die.

The worker's contributions to the Social Security tax are, in essence, his share of insur-

ance premiums. The Social Security card in his billfold symbolizes his insurance policy. That policy is the Social Security Law itself.

Your first question may be "How long must I work in employment covered by Social Security in order to qualify for benefits at age 65?" The yardstick for measuring whether or not you are insured under the law is the "quarter of coverage." A quarter of coverage is a three-month period beginning January 1, April 1, July 1 or October 1—a calendar quarter in which you are paid \$50 or more in wages, (or in which you are credited with \$100 or more in self-employment income covered by the law).

If your self-employment net earnings are \$400 or more for a full taxable year, you will have four quarters of coverage for that year. In other words, teachers who have a business of their own on the side, or if they work as a writer, private teacher, artist, etc., may earn four quarters of coverage a year toward benefits at age 65, if their self-employment earnings are at least \$400 for a taxable year.

You will be fully insured if you have at least one quarter of coverage for each two calendar quarters that have passed after 1950 to the quarter of attainment of age 65, or death.

If, in the above rule, the number is less than six, the individual must have six quarters of coverage. If the application of the rule shows more than 40, the number is reduced to 40.

In case of your death, at any age, certain members of your family may receive insurance payments if you are either fully or currently insured.

You are currently insured at any time, if you have worked for a year-and-a-half out of the last three years. That is a general statement; the rule is stated more accurately in this way: You are currently insured if you have at least six quarters of coverage within the 13 consecutive calendar quarters ending with the quarter in which you become entitled to monthly retirement payments, or die.

The following table shows the different kinds of payments and in what way you must be insured for each:

RETIREMENT PAYMENTS

Monthly payments to you as a retired worker	If you are: Fully insured
Monthly payments to your wife 65, or over	Fully insured
Wife, regardless of age, if caring for child	Fully insured
Child under 18	Fully insured
Dependent husband	Both fully and currently insured

SURVIVORS' PAYMENTS

Lump-sum payment to your Widow or Widower or to the person who paid burial expenses	If at death you were: Either fully or currently insured
Monthly payments to your Widow 65 or over	Fully insured
Widow or dependent divorced wife (regardless of age) if caring for child	Either fully or currently insured
Child under 18	Either fully or currently insured
Dependent widower 65 or over	Both fully and currently insured
Dependent parent 65 or over	Fully insured

How much work will you need to get monthly old-age insurance payments when you retire?

If you reach 65 before July 1	You will need social security credit for about
1954.....	1½ years of work
1955.....	2
1957.....	3
1959.....	4
1961.....	5
1963.....	6
1965.....	7
1967.....	8
1969.....	9
1971.....	10

From the following table, you can estimate your family's payment under the new law when you retire, or after your death:

Your Average Monthly Wage after 1950	Your Benefit At Retirement	Your Wife or Dependent	Husband at 65	Widow Lump-sum Payment
\$300.00	\$80.00	\$40.00	\$60.00	\$240.00
200.00	65.00	32.50	48.80	195.00
100.00	50.00	25.00	37.50	150.00
50.00	25.00	12.50	18.80	75.00

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School, Mount Vernon, New York

If you are in search of new approaches on United Nations teaching, *U.N. Plus Youth* contains many long and short range program suggestions. A U.N. information booth, a town meeting, a U.N. social evening (festival or musicale), a special U.N. edition of your school newspaper, or a U.N. film forum—these might be new ideas for your school. Discussion ideas and a bibliography also make this pamphlet worthwhile. Single copies, free; 100 copies, \$2.00—from American Assn. for U.N., Inc., 45 E. 65 St., New York City 21, New York.

FILMS

Beginning or the End. 30 minutes. Long term lease. Teaching Film Custodians, 25 W. 43 St., New York 18, N. Y.

Development of the atomic bomb in the U.S. to Hiroshima.

Atomic Energy. 11 minutes. Sale or rent Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill.

Principles and structures involved in making possible atomic energy.

You Can Beat the A-Bomb. 20 minutes. Sale or long term lease. McGraw-Hill Book Co.

Text-Film Dept., 330 W. 42 St., New York 18, N. Y.

Protective measures for civilians before, during, and after atomic bomb blast.

Church in the Atomic Age. 19½ minutes. Sale or rent. Film Foundation Forum, Jewett House, 127 E. 12 St., Spokane 10, Wash.

Development and use of the A-bomb during World War II: raises questions regarding moral justification of atomic warfare.

Report on the Atom. 20 minutes. Sale. March of Time Forum Films, 369 Lexington Ave., New York 17, N. Y.

Shows non-military uses of atomic energy.

Geography of Australia. 1 reel, sound. Sale. Young America Films, Inc., 18 E. 41 St., New York 17, N. Y.

A concise treatment of the geography of Australia, pointing out also the interplay between physical and human factors.

The following films are especially important during Brotherhood Week.

Americans All. 20 minutes. Rental. Anti-Defamation League of B'nai Brith, 212 Fifth Ave., New York 10, N. Y.

This March of Time film explores the vital problems of human relations with which America is faced today, and indicates some of the ways we may approach solutions.

Boundary Lines. 12 minutes. Color. Rental. Anti-Defamation League.

Explains the imaginary lines which divide people from one another and shows that such lines have no basis in reality.

Brotherhood for Survival. 11 minutes. Free loan. National Conference of Christians and Jews, 381 Fourth Ave., New York 16, N. Y.

Describes the ways in which the Conference of Christians and Jews work to bring about better understanding among men.

Brotherhood of Man. 10 minutes. Color. Rental. Anti-Defamation League.

A cartoon approach to the scientific facts which prove that men are essentially alike.

One People. 12 minutes. Colored. Rental. Anti-Defamation League

Depicts the contributions of all groups toward the development of America.

Story of Dr. Carver. 10 minutes. Rental. Teaching Film Custodians.

The work of this great Negro scientist helps

us to understand the contributions of the colored race.

Your Neighbor Celebrates. 26 minutes. Rental.

Anti-Defamation League.

A pictorial report of the typical observances of the customs and ceremonies of the major Jewish holidays throughout the year.

FILMSTRIPS

About People. 63 frames. Color. Sale. Anti-Defamation League.

People are alike all over the world; they live differently of course, but their problems and feelings are much like your own.

American Negro History. 73 frames. Sale. Film Publishers, Inc., 25 Broad St., New York, N. Y.

The story of the Negro in the U.S., his leaders and their contributions.

American Religious Holidays. 45 frames. Sale. Anti-Defamation League.

Shows religious festivals and holy days of the three major faiths in America.

Early Americans. 49 frames. Sale. Film Publishers, Inc.

The Indians, Hispanos, and Mexicans and their place in American life.

Free to be Different. 60 frames. Sale. National Conference of Christians and Jews.

The various racial and religious groups in the United States, their contributions and problems.

Spiral of Social Change. 45 frames. Sale. Film Publishers, Inc.

The opportunities offered to minority groups and the effect upon their place in society.

To Secure These Rights. 50 frames. Sale. National Conference of Christians and Jews.

A report of the President's Committee on Civil Rights showing how education and legislation can help.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights. 73 frames. Free. U.N. Film Division. Department of Public Information, United Nations, N. Y.

What the Declaration states and what it means to all of us.

We Are All Brothers. 54 frames. Sale. Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 22 E. 38 St., New York 16, N. Y.

Explodes the theory of the supremacy of one race or nationality. Gives scientific data.

Citizens in a Democracy. 36 frames. Color. Sale. Eye Gate House, Inc., 330 W. 42 St., New York 19, N. Y.

What democracy means in a mythical city of Fairtown.

Democratic Living. 18 frames. Color. Sale. Johnson Hunt Productions, 1133 North Highland Ave., Hollywood 38, Cal.

The principles of fair play, cooperation, and personality development in the country we love.

RECORDINGS

Americans All—Immigrants All. 78 or 33 1/3 r.p.m., Office of Education, Federal Radio Education Committee, Washington 25, D. C.

A series of 24 recorded programs presenting the story of the contributions of our immigrants.

These Great Americans. 33 1/3 r.p.m. Anti-Defamation League. 13 records telling the story of outstanding Americans who dedicated their lives to the principle that all men are created equal.

We Hold These Truths. 33 1/3 r.p.m. Office of Education.

A one-hour broadcast dramatizing the fundamental truths contained in the Bill of Rights.

PICTURES

The following historical documents may be secured from the Photo-duplication Service, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D. C. No order for less than \$1.00 will be accepted.

Acquittal of Peter Zenger (Title page of printed copy). 40 cents.

Articles of Confederation \$4.20.

Bill of Rights. 60 cents.

Constitution of the United States. \$3.00.

Declaration of Independence. 60 cents.

Declaration of Independence. (Jefferson's Draft) \$1.20.

Emancipation Proclamation. 60 cents.

Ex Parte Milligan (Supreme Court Decision) 40 cents.

Gettysburg Address (Seven Versions) 60 cents.

RADIO PROGRAMS

American Forum of the Air (NBC) 10:30-11:00 a.m. (Sunday).

Presents divergent points of view on current controversial topics.

This Is Europe (MBS) 9:30 p.m.-10:00 p.m. (Sunday)

Each week this program presents the story and music of a different European nation. It is designed to give something of the atmosphere of Europe and at the same time to show how the Marshall Plan countries are recovering.

Mr. President (ABC) 9:30 p.m.-10:00 p.m. (Wednesday)

Dramatic program featuring Edward Arnold as he re-enacts interesting human incidents from the lives of American Presidents. Identification of the President around whose life the story is woven is not revealed until the end of the program.

U.N. Highlights (MBS) 11:15 p.m.-11:30 p.m. (Monday through Friday)

Because of the tremendous public interest in Far Eastern developments as reflected in U.N. activities, this program is offered in co-operation with U.N. headquarters in New York. Each program features the highlights of that day's U.N. deliberations including portions of the actual proceedings from the floor.

News and Comment

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

AMERICAN HERITAGE

In the Gimbel Pennsylvania Art Collection there is a Paul Sample painting entitled "Independence Square." Its reproduction adorns the cover of the beautifully and dramatically illustrated Fall, 1951, issue of

American Heritage, which features the 175th Anniversary of the Declaration of Independence in Philadelphia.

Several articles are devoted to the Declaration, to the Liberty Bell and to historic Philadelphia.

In the same issue, "Mr. Watson. . . . Come

"Here" is the intriguing title of an article by John W. Chapman, celebrating the seventy-fifth anniversary of the invention of the telephone. The Mr. Watson of the title refers to Alexander Graham Bell's faithful assistant. Sketches in color and in black and white show Bell and Watson in their laboratory, the transmitter and receiver of Bell's "Harmonic Telegraph," and the telephone exhibited at the Centennial Exposition in 1876. Both the article and its accompanying pictures can be used with profit by secondary school teachers who seek attractive visual aids illustrating this invention.

"Million \$ Witchery" by Bob Duncan, Curator of Folklore, Oklahoma City Libraries, tells of the black magic and superstitions of the "doodlebugs," the unscientific oil prospectors who rely upon peach or willow twigs as divining rods to locate oil. Doodlebugs were regarded with contempt by geologists but with awe by laymen until the latter also became skeptical.

Colonial music performed upon piano-forte, harpsichord, flute, violin and violincello has had a popular revival at Williamsburg, Virginia and at Old Sturbridge Village in Massachusetts. Recently ballad and folk songs, as exponents of American folk music, were sung in the annual "Seminar of American Culture" in Cooperstown, New York.

MINSTREL OF THE ALLEGHENIES

About the middle of the nineteenth century, the minstrel of the Alleghenies, Stephen Foster, composed a number of well known songs: *Old Folks at Home*, *My Old Kentucky Home*, *Massa's in de Cold Ground, Oh! Susanna*, *Jeanie with the Light Brown Hair* and others. His biography, by Harvey B. Gaul, is being published, several chapters at a time, in the *Western Pennsylvania Historical Magazine* (Chapters VII to X appear in the issue of September, 1951.)

Teachers interested in the history of American music as a part of our national culture will find this series illuminating and readily readable.

TEEN-AGERS

In a recent issue of the *New York Sunday Times Magazine Section*, Dorothy Barclay reports her reaction to a preview of a new

motion picture, "Farewell to Childhood," sponsored by the National Association for Mental Health, passed on by the Mental Health Film Board and designed for showing to parent groups as a basis for discussion of the problems arising in many families as children reach adolescence.

The theme of this motion picture is the difficulties arising between the loving, bewildered parents on the one hand and their fifteen-year-old daughter on the other. It outlines the "jobs of growing up," the developmental tasks faced by the young girl. Because neither the parents nor their daughter clearly understood these jobs, they all suffered needless unhappiness.

Parents and other persons concerned with the welfare of adolescents should know that a girl needs her own crowd as well as a chum. She wants to be attractive to the boy she admires. At this stage of development a young girl must achieve greater independence of her family, yet at the same time she requires from her parents understanding and affection.

Teen-agers must accept their future roles as men and women. They need self-confidence in their ability to contribute to life, wisely to use leisure time, and to understand how religious values help them in their own lives. Rental sources for "Farewell to Childhood" may be had from the Mental Health Film Board, 164 East 38th Street, New York 16.

SCHOOL-HOSPITAL FOR YOUNG NARCOTIC ADDICTS

In New York City a school-hospital has been created for teen-agers who, failing in a developmental task, have become narcotic addicts. The Riverside Hospital, on North Brother Island in the East River will admit patients in April 1, 1952 (*J.A.M.A.* Dec. 8, 1951, p. 1459). It has a capacity of 150 beds. The Hospital's resident professional staff includes a senior psychiatrist, four junior psychiatrists, four psychologists, nine psychiatric social workers, seven recreation leaders, four occupational therapists, a physical education instructor, the nursing staff, and three chaplains.

In addition to the resident staff, there will also be visiting psychiatrists from the New York Medical College, and the Flower and the

Fifth Avenue Hospitals. The school unit will be staffed and operated by the New York Board of Education. Space and facilities are being assigned to several public and voluntary agencies which will undertake the follow-up work on the patients. Intensive screening of patients upon admission will send the psychotic and hopeless cases to appropriate institutions.

POPULATION TRENDS

The increased life expectancy in the United States is nearly 70 years, according to Dr. Walter Lincoln Palmer. The two most pressing problems facing old people in his opinion are disease and social difficulties. In the elderly, the principal causes of death have shifted from the infectious to the degenerative and neoplastic diseases. Socially there is an increased need for homes—private, semi-private, or state—in which aged couples may live together without becoming a burden to their families and there receive such care as they may require.

The present age structure of our population has resulted from a decrease in the birth rate even more than from the decrease in the death rate. The progressively smaller number of births is attributed by Dr. Palmer to the voluntary control of conception.

The probable trend in the Western World is toward gradual decline of population. On the other hand, in the East, in Japan and India for example, the lag between the decrease of the death rate and the subsequent drop in the birth-rate has caused over-population. In India, Nehru has officially advocated birth-control. As plagues are brought under control by the public health authorities, an adequate food supply becomes an increasingly pressing problem. Its solution is not immediately available because the experts, geographers and agriculturists, who have studied it are not in agreement.

Dr. Palmer concludes that the rational control of population depends on the attitudes of adults toward parenthood and on the availability of technical information. The process is one of social education in which the physician bears a share of the responsibility of leadership.

MIGRANTS

Father Raymond Bernard, S.J., of the Institute of Social Order, 3655 West Pine Boulevard, Saint Louis 8, Missouri, has written in *Social Order* an article, "Run-Around for Migrants,"

which has been reprinted. In this article he roundly condemns the widespread apathy concerning the plight of the migrant crop workers and the powerful pressure group composed of gigantic factory farm operators which has successfully prevented improvement of the migrants' condition.

Father Bernard refers to the attempts of Steinbeck, Carey McWilliams and others to bring the problem to the attention of the public. He commends a sound recommendation made in March, 1947, by the Federal Interagency Committee on Migrant Labor. He mentions how a legislative measure to ameliorate the conditions of migrant workers met with the complaints of the food processors.

The Interagency Committee had pointed out that seasonal migrant laborers were suffering from substandard living, shocking housing conditions, lack of elementary sanitation, health services and decent recreation. The children of migrant laborers are horribly undernourished. During 1948-49, in six cotton growing counties malnutrition among migrant families caused the deaths of 148 infants. Child-labor and school attendance laws are not enforced.

None of this is new to any one who is a regular reader of *The Survey* and *The New York Sunday Times*. Father Bernard, however has carefully marshalled a great many facts and has documented his statements. He has pointed out a deplorable social evil and has championed a group of people who themselves are helpless. He believes that great improvement could be made if local and district groups would investigate migrant camps and at first-hand see the migrants' working conditions and then stimulate interest by public report and discussion.

EDUCATION FOR MIGRANT CHILDREN

Two new programs were initiated in New York State during 1950 for the education of migrant children. (*The American Child*, Oct., 1951.) About 20,000 migrants travel from Florida to New York State each spring. In the fall they go south where few of them attend school. These children are not only retarded with respect to their knowledge of the three R's but they also lack educational experiences in cooperative work and play which are neces-

sary aids in learning democratic attitudes.

To help in remedying these deficiencies, a 4-H Club was established at the largest migrant labor camp in New York State at King Ferry. The projects taught the children skills in farming, sewing, swine caring and home beautification. The 80 children who participated in these projects look forward with enthusiasm to returning next year once again to engage in the 4-H Club projects.

Another successful educational program for migrant children in New York State was operated in Pooleville under the private sponsorship of the Utica Area Migrant Committee and the Division of Home Missions of the National Council of Churches. Classes were held daily, except Sunday. In an activity program, the children learned the three R's, engaged in supervised recreation, and were given nutritious lunches daily. There was no charge to their parents for this service.

A complete program would be too ambitious an undertaking for any private group. It should be recognized as a state responsibility and transferred to the latter's care.

REMEDY FOR THE TEACHER SHORTAGE

Adelaide Nichols Baker, who served the Connecticut Department of Education in 1949-50 in the recruitment of outstanding college graduates for public school jobs, suggests that the way to remedy the teacher shortage is to change the rigid requirements which now bar many college graduates from teaching. (*The Survey*, December, 1951.)

Originally these regulations were adopted to raise the standards of the profession and to protect it from political and personal pressures.

As long as a state department of education both governed the schools and administered the bureau of certification and the teachers colleges, the system worked well. However, when more young people attended the liberal arts college, the specific requirements became a bar to their certification for public school teaching.

To remedy the shortage of teachers Connecticut competed with industry by recruiting outstanding college graduates from liberal arts colleges. These candidates were admitted to "emergency" courses in theory and practice of elementary education. Their teaching on the job was credited toward the practice teaching

requirement. In addition they are obliged to meet the requirement of thirty semester hours for full certification.

EMPLOYMENT SITUATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHING

A Bulletin issued by the U. S. Department of Labor on the "Effects of Defense Program on Employment Situation in Elementary and Secondary School Teaching" (Supplement to *Bulletin* 972) points out that social science majors are in excess supply in nearly all localities.

HOW ENGLAND MET POST-WAR TEACHER SHORTAGE

According to Alfred T. Hill, whose article appears in *The Educational Forum* (November, 1951), England's most significant educational achievement since the end of World War II is the establishment of the "Emergency Colleges" for the training of teachers. The students in these colleges made an adult choice to enter the teaching profession. They are mature persons who were not university graduates and who did not teach prior to World War II.

They were selected by means of a personal interview conducted by an Interviewing Board. They then pursued a very short course, learning not from college professors but from experienced classroom teachers in the schools.

Their training curriculum, except for a required course in principles of education and one in English, is not prescribed by the Ministry. Its characteristics are great flexibility, practical vocational emphasis, instruction on a near-tutorial basis, and a "cumulative internal assessment." This means that the trainees' actual teaching is evaluated at intervals instead of by means of a formal final examination.

The Emergency Training Scheme was a success because it met the emergency and was regarded as satisfactory by both the teachers and the headmasters.

NEW TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

The *Newsletter* of the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education uses an interesting device to learn about new developments in teacher education. It encloses a yellow slip bearing: the address of its editor, spaces for a description of the nature of the program to be reported, the name and address of the indi-

vidual who can supply information about the program and the signature and address of the person who fills out the slip.

The *Newsletter* of October, 1951, contains a brief note about the program for preparing core teachers for the secondary schools at Ohio State University. This includes

(1) A program of dual certification which is a combination of the elementary and secondary school programs and includes a considerable amount of general education, so essential in the education of core teachers. About eighty students are enrolled in this program. (2) Students in the dual program required to enroll for a course entitled 'Teaching in the Core' which goes into the basic principles and techniques of core curriculum development. (3) Students have the opportunity of observing and possibly of teaching in the University School which operates on a core basis. Regular students preparing for secondary school teaching also have the opportunity to enroll for the core course and to observe in the school.

The College also has available a mimeographed bulletin 'Preparing Core Teachers for the Secondary Schools,' compiled by a graduate seminar in secondary education under the direction of Harold Alberty. Particularly valuable sections of the bulletin are those dealing with the certification

of core teachers, the special competencies needed by the core teacher, and the proposed program for preparing core teachers.

BROTHERHOOD WEEK

February 17th to 24th has been designated as Brotherhood Week. It is sponsored by the National Conference of Jews and Christians which "seeks the Brotherhood of Man based on the Fatherhood of God." Its Committee on Schools and Colleges, headed by Dr. Milton Eisenhower, President of Pennsylvania State College, has distributed a Magazine Kit containing materials for publication to promote the cause. These include glossy cartoons and statements from prominent persons, school superintendents, writers, clergymen, labor leaders, captains of industry, and others.

A perusal of the contents of the kit arouses a sense of something missing, a woeful lack of punch. There is a crying need for a strong, driving, missionary force effectively to influence individuals who are apathetically on the fence or who are out-and-out, unashamed bigots.

There is so much to be accomplished that one wonders whether it would not be possible to project upon an adult level the confident spirit and the positive sincerity which one perceives upon reading "Toward the Open Mind," a booklet issued by the Philadelphia Public Schools.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia

The Soviet State and Its Inception. By Harry Best. New York: Philosophical Library, 1950. Pp. vii, 448. \$6.00.

The author of *The Soviet State* has tried to write a sober and objective study of the Soviet Union. This is a good endeavor, even if for nothing else than the wisdom that lies in knowing the enemy. We hear so much about the inscrutable Russians, about one riddle wrapped in the enigma that sometimes we feel that we are confronted with the cold war that passeth all understanding.

While *The Soviet State* has a good deal of information about the Soviet Union and the way of living of its people, it does not do an

adequate job of explaining to the reader why the Russians behave as they do, which is perhaps the most important thing the average reader would like to know. This deficiency is due to the lack of adequate treatment of the Marxist-Leninist theory of the state, and in general, to the neglect of Soviet theory.

It is impossible to explain the current policies of the Russian government or the way of living that prevails there without referring to two things. One is Russian history, and the other is Marxist theory. One third of the work is devoted to Russian history, but the theory is given only cursory treatment, to the detriment of the whole work. It is, for instance, not

an adequate explanation of the role of terrorism in government to say that it has always been part of the Russian life. The use of terror in the Communist state has its roots in both Czarist Russia practices and in the Leninist theory. The author mentions the first factor, but rather neglects the second.

There are other weaknesses that limit the usefulness of this work. Factual errors are more frequent than is quite excusable, objectivity has been so sought as to deprive the work of much color and drama that might have been legitimately included, and the author's style is irritatingly cliché-ridden. But the overwhelming weakness is that the reader will not get real understanding of what the cold war is all about.

DONALD C. GORDON

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

A Socialist's Faith. By Norman Thomas. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, Inc., 1951. Pp. x, 326. \$4.00.

In this book, speaking directly and frankly to the reader, is the voice of Norman Thomas, staunch defender of "democratic socialism" and six-time aspirant for the American presidency. *A Socialist's Faith* is not a biography but rather one man's analysis of the outstanding social, political, economic, and ideological developments which have occurred in a transitional age. Mr. Thomas does not claim to unravel every mystery of a war-weary world, but he does at least assemble the pieces of a scattered puzzle into a meaningful whole.

Writing as "one concerned for human survival," the author penetrates deeply into the historic significance of Marxism, the nature of democracy, the role of the state, and of the church or organized religion in its social aspects. Mr. Thomas has only unqualified praise for the British Labor party, testimonial, in the opinion of America's leading socialist, that "democracy could be used in orderly fashion to effectuate profound and important changes in a social system." On the other hand, he directs his choicest invectives against the leaders of "imperial communism" whose desires for world power, he maintains, have betrayed the ideals of true socialism. In developing his theme of a democratic-socialist

work program for "plenty, peace, and freedom," the author expresses positive views on a variety of heterogeneous subjects, such topics as civil rights, Korea, Keynesianism, free enterprise, social security, labor unions, private capitalism, biological struggles for survival, United Nations.

The historian will profit considerably from Mr. Thomas' candid appraisals of the political failures of socialism both in Europe and in the United States. The tragedy of socialism abroad, as he sees it, is that the weak socialist regimes of the post-1919 period lacked the virile nationalistic appeals of communism, fascism and nazism and thus fell easy prey to counter-revolutionary movements. Mr. Thomas opines that in this country the relative success of capitalism, the rise of a "sociological middle class" or a managerial element, and the prevailing governmental framework and two-party system have all mitigated the socialist threat of state control over natural resources, money and banking, and private monopolies.

Mr. Thomas manages to be plain and completely understanding without writing down to his readers. Through his program he guarantees no glowing Utopia nor does he deny us hope. Squarely he poses the question which the world of our time must answer if general despair be not the order of the day. "Can men, so imperfectly masters of themselves but almost masters of the awful power of atomic energy, learn in time to live together in freedom and fellowship, using their enormous technological equipment only for the destruction of poverty?" Upon the answer might well depend our own lives and the future of civilization.

HAROLD M. HELFMAN

Department of History
The Ohio State University

Democratic Citizenship in Today's World. By A. Elwood Adams and Edward Everett Walker. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1951. Pp. 373. \$2.00.

This is a revised edition of a civics text organized about three centers of emphasis—the idea of community, American ideals, and cooperative group activity.

The first part deals with group living and the ideals of democracy; the second is about our national government. A section on voca-

tional guidance follows and the last unit includes the topics, protection of life and property, recreation, conservation, and improving the community and standards of living.

A vocabulary list, activity suggestions, and a reading list are at the end of each chapter.

J. IRA KREIDER

Abington High School
Abington, Pennsylvania

Caribbean Lands: Mexico, Central America and West Indies. By Frances Carpenter. New York: American Book Company, 1950. Pp. v, 392. \$1.96. Maps, Index and Glossary.

Teachers of pupils of the Junior High School level will welcome this new text on the Caribbean Lands as it stimulates interest in the peoples of Mexico, Central America and the West Indies.

The text gives a vivid picture of the life of the people, their environment, their habits of work and play, their arts and cultures and emphasizes size, climate and physical features of each country.

This text can be used in Spanish courses as a supplementary reader in order that pupils may have a clearer idea about the people whose language they are studying.

The author has included a unit of work that is worthy of note showing the relationship between the United States, Mexico and other Middle American neighbor countries which stresses the importance of cooperation between these countries in regard to economic factors that will insure a lasting peace.

DAVID W. HARR

Abraham Lincoln High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Elements of Sociology. By Don Martindale and Elio D. Monachesi. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951. Pp. xi, 724. \$5.00.

Judging by the diversity of approaches followed by the current books designed for the introductory course in sociology, the purpose to be served by such a course remains a moot question. Some of them, like Ogburn and Nimkoff, are essentially large compilations of loosely integrated information about culture, social life, social processes, and so on, leaving whatever systematizing is deemed necessary to the instructor. Others, like Cuber, are satisfied in giving a simple explanation of the most

elementary "principles." Still others, like Hiller, attempt to construct a systematic sociology by bringing all societal data within a particular frame of reference. This text by two members of the faculty of the University of Minnesota definitely belongs to the latter group.

The work is divided into six parts, with two appendices. Part I covers the nature, scope, and methods of sociology. Part II is an abstract discussion of the relevancy to sociology of the findings of biology, geology, archeology, ethnology, comparative psychology, and linguistics. These are introductory and do not belong to the system that is outlined.

The method used in systematizing societal facts is described and illustrated in the three chapters of Part III. Social action or the social behavior of individuals that compose society is taken as the basic concept of sociology. Social action is defined as action "which is oriented toward another person as a person" (p. 164). With social action as the core term other societal concepts, the authors claim, can be brought into systematic relation. From this point of view society is "the total of a relatively independent series of social actions" (p. 203). Societies differ one from another in the degree to which each forms a unified system of social action. They can be classified on a continuum ranging from complete unity at one end of the scale to no unity at all at the other extreme. The authors use the type concepts "sacred" and "secular" as utilized by Becker and Barnes, *Social Thought from Lore to Science*, for the two extremes on the scale and classify all societal groups as being either sacred or secular. A sacred society is described as "one in which there is a predominance of traditionalistic social action" and a secular society as "one in which rationalistic social action tends to become predominant" (p. 204).

With these analytical tools the authors proceed to analyze societal data. Social persons are analyzed in Part IV with a chapter given to sacred personality types and another to secular personality types. In the same manner familial, political, religious, and economic institutions and social structure are analyzed in Part V. In each instance the attempt is made to classify the data either as sacred or secular. The same is true in the treatment of social dynamics in Part VI.

It is doubtful whether this approach can provide an adequate systematic sociology. Still more questionable is the wisdom of using such an approach in the introductory course for students, who in the main, do not expect to specialize in the field. Many of the subjects usually included in the introductory course are omitted. Some of the conspicuous omissions are discussions of groups and social movements, demography, social ecology, and urban and rural life. The emphasis is upon methodology and the theoretical aspects of the subject.

The book as a whole is well written. Though the product of two authors the material is very well integrated. The cartoons from the *New Yorker* are well chosen. The challenging topics for discussion and the brief but well selected bibliographies at the end of each chapter are valuable teaching aids. Those who are looking for a text with a systematic approach to the subject should find this text to their liking. It should be especially valuable to first year graduate students and to those who seek a more systematic approach than can be provided by the usual undergraduate course.

MORRIS S. GRETH

Muhlenberg College
Allentown, Pennsylvania

Versus: Reflections of A Sociologist. By Henry Pratt Fairchild. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc. 1950. Pp. xvii, 203. \$3.75.

In this small volume, former students, colleagues, and friends of Professor Henry Pratt Fairchild have sought to honor the former chairman of the New York University Graduate Department of Sociology by presenting to the public selected essays drawn from the output of a long and distinguished career. There is an appreciative foreword by Dr. Donald Young.

These essays were, for the most part, first published in the non-professional, "intellectual" periodicals of which *Harper's* may be taken as an example, and range in date from 1915 to 1937. They deal with sociological, economic, and even philosophical subjects, reflecting the author's wide range of interests, and often take their departure from some specific phenomenon or problem of the time. Although one may not agree with each and every one of Professor Fairchild's conclusions, he will find in these

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essays much wisdom, considered humanitarianism, and lucid presentation. Certainly there will be few who will disagree completely with the author's emphasized observation that "Life teems with conditions and relationships in which we are confronted with two good alternatives, perhaps equally good, on such terms that if we seize the one we must forego the other, or we are faced with two evils that are so related that in order to escape one we must necessarily submit to the other. It is in consequence of recurrent dilemmas of this sort that human existence is never wholly happy, but always tainted with misery, regret, and a heavy burden of frustration."

This reviewer found himself savoring these short pieces in somewhat the same fashion that a man of letters might savor a fine collection of "familiar" essays. It may be observed with some regret that the capacity to evoke this type of response does not appear to be conspicuous in the sociological writings of the present day, whatever may be their other virtues.

MILTON M. GORDON

Drew University,
Madison, New Jersey

Modern Philosophies of Education. By John S. Brubacher, Second Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1950. Pp. ix, 349. \$4.00.

This is a second, greatly revised edition of a book first published in 1939. Three new chapters have been added, two dropped, and others completely rewritten. This reviewer, who was not acquainted with the first edition, rather expected to find the modern philosophies of education treated separately and then compared, but the author has attempted a more difficult and hazardous undertaking; he has considered the modern philosophies of education—particularly the "progressive" and "essentialist" philosophies of education—comparatively in connection with the development of such general topics as Generic Traits of Human Nature, The Nature of Human Nature, The Theory of Knowledge, the Educative Process, Religion and Moral Education, and so forth. One of the new chapters attempts to draw some of the strings together at the end under the title, "Consensus among Philosophies of Education."

This extremely difficult task has been performed with thoroughness and care, but the reader will find the going hard. The essential subject matter—education—is practical and of a basically psychological and sociological cast; hence the relevance of such philosophical issues as appearance and reality, change and changelessness, time and eternity, the mind-body problem, freedom of the will, the natural and the supernatural, is not easy to establish. A certain confusion and fuzziness arises in the course of the comparative treatment of these issues. Only when the discussion reaches the pragmatic questions involved in the learning process and in the consideration of the relation of education to economics and politics does it yield the promise of applicability. It is therefore with some relief that a reader finally reaches the penultimate chapter on Systematic Philosophies of Education, where each point of view is separately summarized; he needs it badly by the time he gets to it.

On the whole, despite sympathy with the author's purpose, one understands why the first edition of this book "had hardly come off the press before suggestions began to occur to the author as to how the volume might be

amplified and clarified."

JOHN B. NOSS

Franklin and Marshall College
Lancaster, Pennsylvania

Social Economy and the Price System. By Raymond T. Bye. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950. Pp. xi, 356, \$3.50.

In this essay on "welfare economics" Professor Bye sets himself the task of appraising the possibilities and limitations of the price system as an institution in what he describes as a comfort or surplus economy. Unlike pure economists such as Hotelling, Lange, Lerner, Reder, and Scitovsky, who investigate problems of welfare economics without offering any explanation of the content of welfare, Bye starts off with a definition of welfare. The essence of welfare is found in that group strength which underlies social survival. Whatever in economic activity contributes to group strength makes for social survival, and is therefore an element in economic welfare. Whatever makes the individual efficient and group organization effective, and whatever gives rise to internal cohesion in the economy makes for social survival, and hence adds to economic welfare.

Having explained what he means by economic welfare, Bye then proceeds to set up a number of criteria which measure the success a community has in achieving a large measure of economic welfare. These criteria relate to consumer wants, the division of income, the relation of present to future needs, the maximization of output, and the securing of efficiency in production. These criteria represent value judgments as to what are desirable economic policies leading to group strength and social survival. They are what one's common sense would, in Bye's opinion, lead the individual to accept as worth-while economic policies.

After he has established the criteria of social economy, Professor Bye then turns to his main task which is to appraise the institution of the price system "as a device for guiding the economic process in welfare directions." His general conclusion is that there is no basic conflict between the pricing process and the achievement of a high level of economic welfare. With some modifications or adjust-

ments the price system, even in a collective economy, can be made to serve the goals of social economy. Bye does not offer any detailed program of economic reform but he does a good job of showing at what points the price system would have to be modified to meet the needs of a surplus economy. Professor Bye's study is an excellent antidote to those puristic studies in the theory of welfare economics which are as unrelated to the real problems of the world today as are many other segments of formalistic or mathematical economics.

ALLAN G. GRUCHY

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

Soviet Imperialism, Russia's Drive Toward World Domination. By E. Day Carman. Public Affairs Press, 1950. Pp. xvi, 175. \$3.25.

This work by an historian of mature scholarship is an intriguing book with a masterly pattern. Russian territory aggrandizement continuing from Tsarist days to the present Communist Russia is the story, alarming yet fascinating to the thoughtful reader. The game of chess in international relations is played with cool and ruthless determination by the Soviet government.

In separate chapters sketching the absorption of Poland, part of Finland, Bessarabia, Northern Bucovina, the Baltic states, Czechoslovakia, and China, the author has given a clear and realistic picture of the Russian drive for world domination.

However, not in detached stories of Russian imperialism but in the development of an overall master plan, the author is most illuminating in his analysis. The method used by the Politburo in bringing into their orbit land with more than 24,000,000 people has in some cases been similar, in other instances, different. Russia cuts the garment to suit the cloth.

A revealing chapter in this book is the narrative of the failure of the Minindel, or Russian Ministry of Foreign Affairs, to carry out their plans of aggrandizement in Turkey. Despite the extravagant postwar claims of Russia, Turkey has remained territorially unchanged.

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The style of the author is clear, incisive, and direct. No less pleasing to the reader is the synthesis of the many fragments of the all expansive policy of Russian imperialism supported by a dynamic Communism.

GARTON S. GREENE

Germantown High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

A History of England from the Coming of the English to 1938. By Keith Feiling. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1948. Pp. lxxxi, 1120. \$6.00.

Here is a new comprehensive and masterly survey of the history of the British Isles from

the coming of the English down to 1938. With marked success the author has integrated economic, social, and cultural factors into his narrative account. Individual treatment is accorded the history of Scotland, Ireland, and Wales so that the reader, if he chooses, may be able to trace their growth and development separately. Emphasis, however, is placed on the period during which England became a great power.

This book is supplied with thirteen maps, a number of genealogical tables, many lists of significant dates, and a brief but well-selected bibliography for further reading. The index is unusually complete.

In a sense this book reminds one of John Richard Green's famous classic of the last century. However, Professor Feiling's work continues the story beyond 1815, where Green's own narrative stops, and also devotes much more space to the development of the British Empire overseas, a topic which Green largely ignored. As a work of narrative and reappraisal of the fundamental factors and events which have moulded the history of England, Professor Feiling's study is of exceptional value, especially to the general reader and to the university student. The attractive format and the laudably clear and readable style of this book further enhance its value. More than a text-book, it is a literary achievement.

BERNARD C. WEBER

University of Alabama
University, Alabama

Two Sides to a Teacher's Desk. By Max S. Marshall. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951. Pp. 284. \$3.00.

An experienced and professionally trained teacher finds in this book much to commend and little to condemn. The author has presented a wealth of wisdom, gathered from years of experimentation and experience as a teacher of bacteriology to students in college and graduate school.

One feature of the author's style might annoy certain readers. To many teachers their work is a serious business. If this is true of Mr. Marshall, he often conceals it by his manner of writing. He avoids over-seriousness by using a flippant style which is mildly

humorous. His lack of reverence for the whims and traditions of teaching leads him into an occasional use of quips which are rather strained.

The author expresses opinions on practically all debatable questions regarding schools and teaching. The positions taken are usually well-balanced, presented with clearness and with refreshing originality.

Since the author doubts the value of specific requirements in the training of teachers, he would be among the first to object to the suggestion that his book be made required reading for them. It is consistent with his point of view to state that teachers who are concerned about their problems should get the book. They can read it with profit.

JOHN W. CARR, JR.

Duke University
Durham, North Carolina

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Justice William O. Douglas, *Look*, January 16, 1951.
 "Political and Economic Systems," *American Observer*, February 12, 1951.
 "Where Do We Get the Money?" *American Observer*, January 22, 1951.
 A very helpful article for teachers of Economics.
 "Approach to the Future," by Earl Bunting. *Trends*, Volume 7, Number 1, (January 1951)
 "The Cost of Security," *Time* (January 22, 1951)
 "Good Education," by Walter E. Myer, *The American Observer*, (January 29, 1951)
 "Peoples, Politics, and Peanuts in Eastern Africa," *Foreign Policy Report*, (December 1, 1950).
 "Denver Schools Connect Learning with Life," *Parents Magazine* (February 1951).
 "Using the Problem Solving Method," by William J. Shryock. *The Civic Leader*. Volume xix. Number 9, November 12, 1951.

PAMPHLETS

The Defense of Europe, by Morley Cassidy, European Correspondent. Copies 50 cents

upon application to the *Evening Bulletin*, Broad and Juniper Streets, Philadelphia 2, Pennsylvania.

Prejudice in Text Books, by Maxwell S. Stewart. Public Affairs Pamphlet, Number 160. Copies 20 cents. Public Affairs Committee, 22 East 38th Street, New York, N. Y. *Atoms at Work*, by Lee A. Dubridge. Copies \$1.00. Council on Atomic Implications, Box 296, University of Southern California, Los Angeles 7, California.

How We Live. By Fred G. Clark and Richard Stanton Rimanoczy. New York: D. Van Nostrand Company, Incorporated, 250 Fourth Avenue, New York. Price 25 cents.

The Conquest of Steel. By Charles E. Manwiller and Margaret E. Maloney. New York: The University Publishing Company. Price 48 cents.

WFIL Studio Schoolhouse Teacher's Manual. 1951-1952. Prepared by the *Philadelphia Inquirer*. Copies free upon application to Roger W. Clipp, General Manager, Broad and Callowhill streets, Philadelphia, Penna.

Minorities in the United States. By Leonard B. Irwin. The Oxford Book Company, 222

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A sociological study of international relations.

A Short History of the Far East. By Kenneth Scott Latourette. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951. Pp. xviii, 715. \$5.25.

An extensive study of the Far East.

Understanding Economics. By William C. Bagley, Jr. and Richard M. Perdew. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951. Pp. 528. \$3.28.

A text that should prove very popular with teachers on the secondary level.

Living in our America: A Record of Our Country. By I. James Quillen and Edward Krug. Chicago, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1951. Pp. xxii, 752. \$3.32.

Excellent for use in presenting the problem approach.

Roads to Agreement. By Stuart Chase. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951. Pp. xxi, 245. \$2.75.

A practical discussion of what we must learn in order that we may live together.

The Family: A Dynamic Interpretation. By Willard Waller. Revised by Reuben Hill, New York: The Dryden Press, Publishers, 1951. Pp. xxv, 637. \$5.25.

The new edition retains the old punch but adds much new and vital material.

American Government Today. By Ernest B. Fincher, John H. Ferguson and Dean E. McHenry. New York: McGraw-Hill Book

Company Incorporated, 1951. Pp. xx, 583. \$3.20.

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Your Government. By George O. Comford, Royce H. Knapp, and Charles W. Shull. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951. Pp. xxviii, 497. \$4.00.

A carefully written text for high school youths. Organization of this text is outstanding.

Highways in our National Life. Edited by Jean Labatut and Wheaton J. Lane. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Pres, 1950 Pp. xliv, 506. \$7.50.

Nearly every aspect of the modern highway has been considered in this comprehensive volume.

Backwoods Utopias. By Arthur Eugene Bestor Jr. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1950. Pp. viii, 28. \$3.50.

Explanation of Sectarian and Owenite phases of Communitarian Socialism in America, 1663 to 1829.

The Police State. By Craig Thompson. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company Incorporated, 1950. Pp. xi, 257. \$3.00.

What you want to know about the Soviet Union.

Surveys, Polls and Samples. By Mildred Parten. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950. Pp. xvii, 624. \$5.00.

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Personality and Youth. By Louis P. Thorpe. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company, 1949. Pp. xi, 379. \$3.00.

The purpose of this book is to present in language that high school students can understand the essentials of personality development.

The Making of America. Book One: The Emergency of a Nation. Book Two: Democracy in our Industrial World. By Donald Sheehan. New York: The Dryden Press, 1950. Pp. Volume One iv, 350. \$2.40. Volume Two, v-ix, 351-700. \$2.40.

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